POLITICAL CONFLICT AND QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH SUDAN: A CASE OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN UNITY STATE

By

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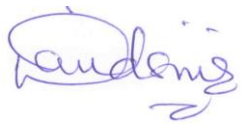
DECLARATION

I, David Asiimwe declare that this dissertation is a result of my own effort and has never been submitted for any other academic award in any University or Institution. Throughout the work, I have acknowledged all sources used in its compilation.



7th November 2014

APPROVAL

This is to certify that this work has been done under our supervision and submitted for examination with our approval.

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12th November 2014

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11th November 2014

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my beloved wife, my precious gift from God, Mrs. Jackie K. Asiimwe whose unwavering encouragement and motivation enabled me to embark on this programme and complete the study. I should say she has been my domestic ‘supervisor’ asking me always, when I am graduating?

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the relationship between political conflict and the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan. The objectives of the study were: to assess the effect of political shocks on quality of education; to establish the effect of exposure of households to political violence on quality of education; to establish the causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education; and to establish strategies for improving quality of education in primary schools in the political conflict affected areas in Unity State, South Sudan. A cross-sectional study design was adopted using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The sample targeted 332 respondents but 311 participated in the study. Simple random sampling technique was used to select teachers and pupils. Purposive sampling was used to specifically select local education officials and NGO members and convenience sampling for selection of parents and local community members. Primary data analysis involved frequencies, percentages and inferential statistics such as correlations and coefficients of determination. Secondary data analysis involved analyzing the content of qualitative data. Findings revealed a very strong negative relationship ($r = -.907$) between political shocks and quality of education, a strong negative relationship ($r = -.776$) between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education and after controlling for causal mechanisms, the relationship between political shocks and quality of education significantly decreased from -.907 to -.015 while that between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education significantly decreased from -.776 to -.025. It was therefore concluded that political conflict compromised the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan. Children could not easily access education because of displacement of households affecting both pupils and teachers and most schools were destroyed during political conflict. It is recommended that the government of South Sudan together with donors, NGOs and CBOs should invest in the social and economic infrastructure in Unity State to alleviate the political conflict shocks experienced in the region, provide psycho-social support services and/or support to households and give an opportunity to child soldiers to access education and create income generating activities.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The study was about the perceived effect of political conflict on the quality of education in Unity State, South Sudan. Political conflict was the independent variable whereas quality of education was the dependent variable. Interest in this study was motivated by the observed poor quality of education in Southern Sudan after the political conflict. This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, hypotheses of the study, conceptual framework, significance, justification and scope of the study and definition of terms and concepts used.

1.2 Background to the study

1.2.1 Historical background

Political conflict can be traced before the dawn of civilization, where war consisted of small-scale raiding. Some 5,000 years ago, political conflict activity occurred over much of the globe. The advent of gunpowder and the acceleration of technological advances led to modern warfare. According to Conway W. Henderson, one source claims 14,500 wars have taken place between 3500 BC and the late 20th century, costing 3.5 billion lives, leaving only 300 years of peace (Conway, 2010). Before Civilization, Lawrence H. Keeley, a professor at the University of Illinois, said that approximately 90–95% of known societies throughout history engaged in at least occasional political conflict, and many fought constantly (Conway, 2010).

In Western Europe, since the late 18th Century, more than 150 conflicts and about 600 battles have taken place. In the 20th century, Europe experienced a number of political

conflicts (Kershaw, 2005). This first half of the century or more precisely, the years 1914 to 1950 that spanned the period from the beginning of the First World War to the end of the Second World War, embracing also its immediate aftermath, when high levels of violence against civilian populations with the resulting misery of millions continued – has been, more surely than any other period in history, to be labeled 'the era of violence'.

On the African continent, political conflict is not a new phenomenon. During the last four decades between the 1960s and the 1990s, there had been about 80 violent changes of governments (Adedeji, 1999) in the 48 sub-Saharan African countries. At the beginning of the 20th Century, there were 18 countries facing armed rebellion, 11 facing severe political crises (Adedeji 1999), and 19 enjoying more or less various states of stable political conditions.

Political conflict in southern Sudan can be traced from the civil war between the north and south Sudan that broke out in 1955 and continued after Sudan became an independent nation in 1956. Sudan's succession of northern governments could not bring the conflict under control. Fighting continued until 1972, when the Southern Sudan Liberation Movement (SSLM) signed a peace agreement with the Sudanese government. The peace was doomed from the start, because the foundation necessary for a pluralistic, democratic society was not there. Throughout in the 1980s, southern Sudan was at war with northern Sudan. During that period, the SSLM reorganized as the Sudan Peoples' Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A). The civil war took on a religious perspective that had not characterized the previous struggle. To present day, 2014, Sudan and South Sudan have continued with aggression even after the signing of the Nairobi Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) on January 9, 2005, which brought Southern Sudan to be recognized as an independent state on July 9, 2011 after a referendum favoured separation.

1.2 Theoretical background

This study adopted Moore's (1912) theory of consequentialism to explain the effect of political conflict on quality of education. Consequentialism, as its name suggests, is the view that normative properties depend only on consequences. This general approach can be applied at different levels to different normative properties of different kinds of things, but the most prominent example is, consequentialism is about the moral rightness of acts, which holds that whether an act is morally right depends only on the consequences of that act or of something related to that act (McNaughton & Rawling, 1991). In other words, consequentialism is the class of normative ethical theories holding that the consequences of one's conduct are the ultimate basis for any judgment about the rightness of that conduct. Thus, from a consequentialist standpoint, a morally right act is one that will produce a good outcome or consequence and a morally wrong act is one that will produce a bad outcome or consequence (Darwall, 2002; Portmore, 2011). This theory was relevant to this study, in that it questions motives behind political conflict in relation to quality of education. In this study, it was argued that political conflict has destructive effects on the quality of education.

1.2.3 Conceptual background

The term conflict in this study is used to mean violent and/or armed confrontation, struggle between groups, between the state and one or more groups, and between two or more states (Bujra, 2002). Political conflict is where the state is involved in one way or the other. It is a struggle resulting from incompatible or opposing political needs, drives, wishes, or demands. It occurs whenever the political action of one person or group prevents, obstructs, or interferes with the political goal, achievement or action of another person(s). It was in this context that political conflict (synonymous with armed conflict in this study) was conceptualized in Unity State, South Sudan.

Quality education means the education which fulfills the desired standard of knowledge and skill suitable for the time being. According to UNESCO (2001), Shaeffer's presentation discussed ten components of quality education from the Dakar Framework, and outlined how educators can help children to realise their right to a good quality primary education. Essential ingredients were quality learners, quality content, quality teaching/learning process, quality learning environments, and quality outcomes. Throughout all these was highlighted the need for gender-sensitivity, and the overall need for rights-based, child-friendly schools, which were further described. These issues were used to conceptualize quality of education in Unity State, South Sudan.

1.2.4 Contextual background

Unity State is one of the regions in South Sudan that experienced most turbulent political conflict because of its natural endowment with huge oil deposits (UNESCO, 2002); these deposits are at the epicenter of political conflict between the South Sudan leadership and the Sudan Government. The year 2012 saw the climax of armed conflict between South Sudan's Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) with Sudanese Sudan Armed Forces (SAF) in the South Sudanese state of Unity (Sudan Tribune, 2012). Unity State was bombed by the SAF during the clashes in April 2012. The United Nations, international and local media, as well as the South Sudanese authorities reported the bombardment that resulted from SPLA 10-day occupation of Heglig oil town – a contested area at the border between Sudan and South Sudan.

Throughout the period of political conflict the quality of education in Southern Sudan has been far below standard compared to most African countries. Yet the role of education has progressively been recognized in international development lexicon not only of its pivotal

role in improving the well-being of households and individuals but also the positive externalities that it generates for society as a whole (Deng, 2006). There is overwhelming and convincing empirical evidence that consistently indicates the positive impact of education on improving the well-being and reducing poverty and vulnerability of the impoverished households in rural and urban settings (Deng, 2006).

Despite the apparent recognition of the positive role of education in human development, provision of quality education in South Sudan has been elusive. The magnitude of the problem is seen in the comparison of statistics between northern Sudan and Southern Sudan. For example, from 1972-83, the following were the percentages in northern Sudan compared to Southern Sudan: primary pupils 90% to 10%, primary schools 87% to 13%, primary teachers 92% to 8%, gross enrolment rate 40% to 12%, intermediate schools 93% to 7%, secondary schools 93% to 7%, and university admission 99% to 1% (Yongo-Bure, 1993). This shows that there was a significant poor access to education at all levels in South Sudan. During the 1999/2000 period, the Universal Primary Education Gross Enrolment Rate statistics were 55% in northern Sudan compared to 30% in Southern Sudan (UNESCO, 2002; UNICEF/OLS, 2002). Thus, this revealed that the status of education in Southern Sudan was sluggishly behind not only in relation to the status of education in northern Sudan but it was extremely far away in meeting the minimum levels of the Education for All (EFA) goals. Presently, in South Sudan, most schools are 'bush schools' with outdoor classrooms and only 12% of the classrooms are permanently made of bricks or concrete (UNICEF/OLS, 2002a). The curriculum context and school syllabuses are not standardized across all primary schools (Deng, 2006). Only 54% of schools use the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) syllabus introduced in 1998 while the rest use either Kenyan or Ugandan syllabuses (UNICEF/OLS, 2002). Besides variation of syllabi across schools in South Sudan, there is an acute shortage of textbooks. It was found that

about half of the primary pupils have no textbooks while only 30% have at most 2 textbooks (UNICEF/SRRA, 2002). Children with no textbooks carry a high risk of not attending school. Most primary teachers in Southern Sudan are poorly trained with only 7% who received college training and the rest either received some in-service training (48%) or untrained completely (45%) (UNICEF/OLS, 2002). Besides, acute shortage of trained teachers, they are poorly equipped with teaching facilities and teachers' guide books. In addition, most teachers are working in rather extreme conditions of lack and/or inadequate incentives. Most schools across South Sudan do not have basic/essential facilities and services for creating a conducive environment for learning (UNICEF/OLS, 2000). About 70% of primary school age population did not enroll in school (UNICEF/OLS, 2000). Among those who enrolled, 10.3% did not attend classes for more than 3 days a week, which suggested a significant drop out of pupils particularly among male pupils (57%).

In Unity State, many schools lack qualified teachers and are overcrowded with grown up students. Only 19% of the villages have an education facility. 90% of the existing education facilities are basic primary schools, 5% are secondary schools and 4% provide only adult literacy classes. The structures of school buildings themselves are generally very basic: 32% are outdoor facilities (under trees); 55% are of non-permanent structure; and only 13% are permanent structures. Only 35% of enrolled students are girls as indicated in the documentary review during the researcher's preliminary study. Thus, the right to quality education that has recently been invoked in the lexicon of many development actors concerned is far from being realized and it remains a rhetoric rather than tangible reality in South Sudan. This poses a real challenge and the need to understand the context within which political conflict has affected quality education in Southern Sudan.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The quality of primary education in Unity State, South Sudan is very worrying compared to its neighbor northern Sudan. The level of access to education during inter-war period in Unity State was less than 28% compared to 72% in northern Sudan (Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS), 2011). The primary school enrolment rate was about 40 per cent in the north but less than 12 per cent in Unity State (GoSS, 2011). In addition, while pupils-teacher ratio was about 34 in the north, it was more than 42 in Unity State (GoSS, 2011). Dropout rate is high and in some counties in Unity State it is between 30% and 50% (GoSS, 2011). The learning environment is very unconducive evidenced in terms of poor quality classrooms (mostly grass thatched, others without proper ventilation and with dusty floors, lack of latrines, inadequate teachers, lack of reading and learning materials to mention some). Such education is detrimental to the economic, social and health development of people of Unity State in particular and South Sudan in general (UNESCO 2005). The poor quality of education may be related to the political conflict the region has been experiencing for a long time. This is because various scholars (such as by Case & Paxson 2006; Maccini & Young, 2009; Knight et al., 1996; Collier, 1999; Stewart & Fitzgerald, 2001; UN, 2005; Justino, 2009;, Verwimp, Justino & Brück, 2009) indicated negative consequences of political conflict on education, which included destruction of school buildings, death of parents who would cater for the children's school needs, displacement of people hence making closure of schools, loss of teachers through death and fleeing the conflict, to mention some. However, no empirical evidence indicating such a relationship has been documented in Unity State. This situation has created a knowledge gap which is regrettable as it is the kind of information that policy makers would need. The need for such information necessitated this study. It is thus upon this fact that this study assessed the perceived effect of political conflict on the quality of education in Unity State, South Sudan to fill the gap in the available literature. It was also evident that the reviewed

literature points to deliberate policies to under-develop the education system in Southern Sudan by its post-colonial rulers during the second civil war 1983-2004 (World Bank, 2012).

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The study investigated the relationship between political conflict and the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The following objectives guided the study:

1. To assess the effect of political shocks on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan
2. To establish the effect of exposure of households to political violence on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan
3. To establish the causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan.
4. To establish strategies for improving quality of education in primary schools in political conflict affected areas in Unity State, South Sudan.

1.6 Research Questions

The following research questions were answered in the study:

1. What are the effects of political shocks on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan?
2. What are the effects of exposure of households to political violence on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan?

3. What causal mechanisms link political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan?
4. What are the strategies for improving quality of education in primary schools in the political conflict affected areas in Unity State, South Sudan?

1.7 Hypotheses of the Study

The study tested the following hypotheses:

1. Political shocks have a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan
2. Exposure of households to political violence has a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan
3. Causal mechanisms have a significant negative contribution to the effect of political conflict on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan.
4. There are ineffective strategies for improving quality of education in primary schools in the political conflict affected areas in Unity State, South Sudan.

1.8 Conceptual framework showing the relationship between political conflict, causal mechanisms and the quality of education

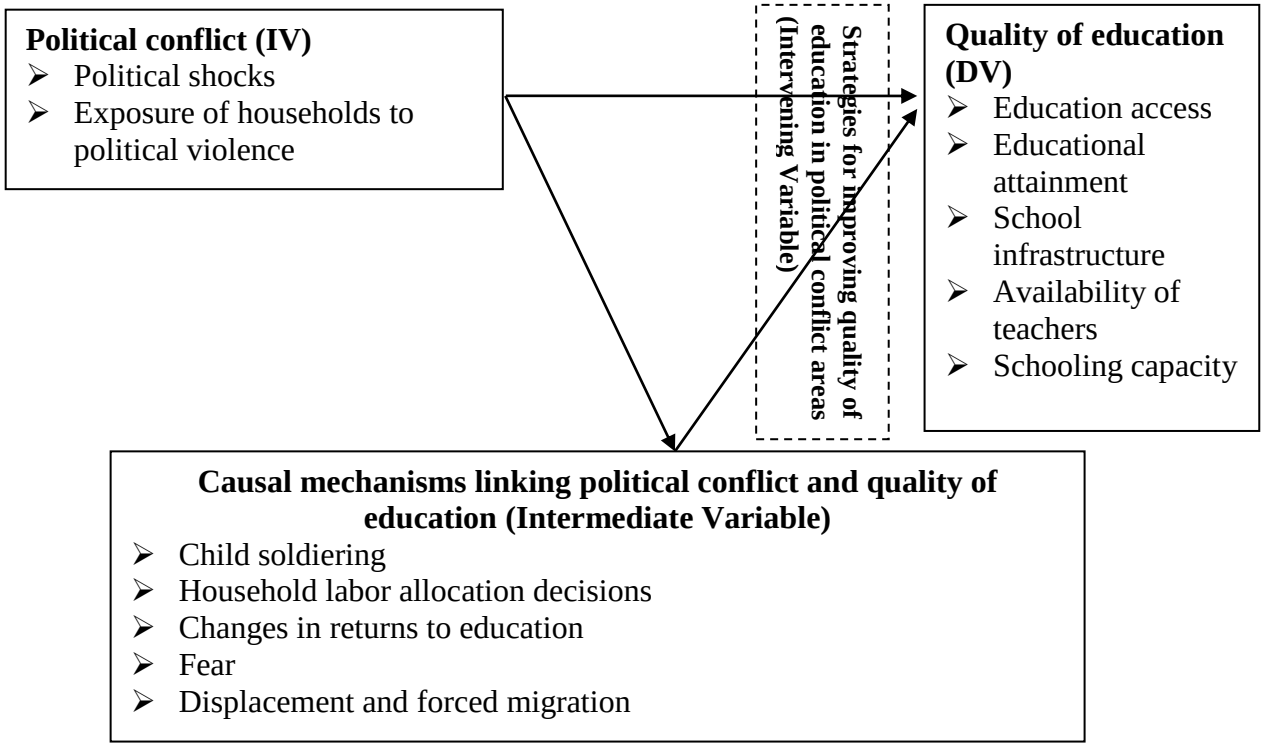

Figure 1: Relationship between political conflict and quality of education
Source: Justino (2010a).

The conceptual framework shows the relationship between the study variables, which are political conflict, causal mechanisms, and quality of education. Political conflict was the independent variable, causal mechanisms were the intermediate variables[1], strategies for improving education in political conflict areas were intervening variables and quality of education was the dependent variable. It is shown that political conflict can directly influence quality of education. Furthermore, political conflict can indirectly influence quality of education through causal mechanisms. However, the strategies can be adopted as interventions to the effect of political conflict on quality of education.

1.9 Significance of the Study

The study findings may benefit the South Sudan government, particularly Unity State policy makers to improve the quality of education in primary schools. Policymakers may

[1] A variable in a causal pathway that causes variation in the dependent variable and is itself caused to vary by the independent variable.

design policies to address inequities with an aim to alleviate the political conflict experienced in the region, which compromise the quality of education. Such policies may include equal investment and distribution of economic activities. Findings may also similarly benefit other areas and/or countries affected by political conflict. The Southern Sudanese government together with development partners may use the findings to provide psycho-social services to households that were exposed to political violence, which compromised the education of children. This may help improve the social, economic and political relations in such a way that makes returns to schooling more attractive. Furthermore, scholars and academicians may benefit from the findings. They may use it in their professional fields to enrich their knowledge and may use it as a source of literature for review in their academic fields.

1.10 Justification of the Study

The motivation for this study was aroused by the state of the quality of education in Unity State, South Sudan, which experienced political conflict for more than 20 years. Literature shows with overwhelming and convincing empirical evidence the importance of education in international development especially in improving the well-being of households and individuals including the society as a whole. From the literature, it was argued if this study was not conducted; poor education quality would persist in Unity State leading to deterioration in the well-being of the community with increasing poverty and vulnerability of the poor households. In relation, youth unemployment would surge since most of the youths are unskilled and even those that attended school during the civil war are semi-skilled due to the poor quality of education obtained and in most cases unemployable since they do not match the internationally acceptable education standards in the job market. Their peers educated in Uganda and Kenya for instance, are more competitive than the ones educated locally.

The researcher picked interest in primary education because it was the foundational stage of all education. If children begin school poorly and/or are not given proper initiation into school system, their whole education life might be a mess. Millennium Development Goal No. 2 calls for Universal Primary Education for all school going children just to emphasize the importance of primary education.

1.11 Scope of the Study

The geographical scope was restricted to Unity State in South Sudan. This area has been chosen because it is one of the areas that experienced more political conflict and at the same time, the quality of education is very worrying. The content scope was limited to political conflict, causal mechanisms linking political conflict and educational attainment, strategies for improving education in political conflict affected areas and quality of education. The time scope was limited to the period Southern Sudan was involved in political conflict prior to December 2013.

1.12 Operational Definitions

Political conflict referred to a struggle resulting from incompatible or opposing political needs, drives, wishes, or demands where states are involved.

Quality of education referred to learners who are healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn, and supported in learning by their families and communities; Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender-sensitive, and provide adequate resources and facilities; Content that is reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills; Processes through which trained teachers use child-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skillful assessment to

facilitate learning and reduce disparities; and outcomes that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society.

Strategies referred to methods or plans chosen to bring about desired results, such as achievement of a goal or solution to a problem.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature review. It is divided into two major sections. The first section presents literature on effect of political conflict on quality of education. The second section presents literature on causal mechanisms linking political conflict and educational attainment.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The theory of consequentialism is a theory of morality, that is to say a theory that is based on the moral consequences of actions. This theory helped link the independent variable in this study (that is political conflict) to the dependent variable (that is quality of education). Also in this study, the theory emphasized the moral consequences of political conflict in Southern Sudan in particular Unity State. Thus, it was against this that the methodology for testing the effect of political conflict on quality of education using correlation and coefficient of determination was adopted and used in chapter four. From the theory, moral consequences of actions are explained in terms of consequentialism". Mautner (2011) argues that the term "consequentialism" was first referred to as a theory concerning responsibility, but is now commonly used for a theory concerning right and wrong. The theory concerning right and wrong is the view that an action is right if and only if its total outcome is good and an action is wrong if and only if its total outcome is bad. This is the basic form of consequentialism. What they all have in common is that consequences alone should be taken into account when making judgments about right and wrong. This is how the term has been used since the late 1960s (Mautner, 2011). Previously, "utilitarianism" was the term commonly used for consequentialism, and that use remains; but many writers now use the term "utilitarianism" to designate a kind of consequentialism. However,

according to Mill (2011), the term "consequentialism" was coined by G.E.M. Anscombe in her essay "Modern Moral Philosophy" in 1958, and has since become common throughout English-language moral theory. Its historical roots are in utilitarianism, although earlier ethical theories often considered the consequences of actions relevant to ethical deliberation. Because of this historical tie to utilitarianism these two approaches are sometimes conflated. This conflation is not necessarily inaccurate as utilitarianism has the important formal character of all consequentialist theories: a focus on the consequences.

The theory of Consequentialism has been used to explain consequences of a political conflict. The theory has been used in Jonathan Glover's writings about the morality of war, which he treats theoretically in *Causing Death and Saving Lives* and discusses from a more practical point of view, concerned to avert its horrors (Glover cited in Hurka, 2005). Though the discussion gives some weight to individual autonomy, its watchword is Bertrand Russell's insistence on a "vital realization of the consequences of acts," and it therefore sets aside such deontological distinctions as between doing and allowing harm, intending and foreseeing harm. Throughout, its focus is on what war will do to people. Consequentialism makes the moral permissibility of war turn largely on its effects: both the suffering and destruction it will cause and the rights-violations it can prevent.

2.3 Effect of Political Conflict on Quality of Education

Violent political conflict results in deaths, injuries, disability and psychological trauma to men, women and children. These outcomes of violence may often be enough to push previously vulnerable households below critical thresholds. These may become impossible to overcome if the household is unable to replace labour or capital, and may last across generations if the impact on children's education and health is significant (Case & Paxson 2006; Maccini & Young 2009). Below is a review merging empirical literature on the

impact of violent political conflict on educational outcomes amongst children and young men and women affected by political violence.

For a long time, research on the consequences of violent political conflict focused on estimating the aggregate costs that civil wars impose on countries (Knight et al. 1996, Collier 1999, Stewart & Fitzgerald, 2001). Programmes of conflict resolution have also been typically driven by concerns with state security and state capacity (UN, 2004, 2005). This country-level perspective has come under criticism in recent years due to insufficient attention paid to the impact of armed conflicts on the lives of individuals and households affected by violence (Justino 2009, Verwimp, Justino & Brück 2009). Better data and improvements in microeconomic research in developing countries have led in recent years to an increased focus of research and policy on the consequences of violent political conflict on the long-term human capital of people affected by violence (Justino, 2010b).

Although still in its infancy, emerging empirical evidence on the micro-level effects of violent political conflict has found that in general, civil wars have a negative impact on educational attainments. Alderman, Hoddinott and Kinsey (2006) found that Zimbabwean children affected by the civil war in the 1970s completed less grades of schooling and/or started school later than those not affected by the shocks. Similar results are found by Akresh and de Walque (2008) for Rwanda, Angrist and Kugler (2008) and Rodriguez and Sanchez (2009) for Colombia, Chamarbagwala and Morán (2009) for Guatemala, de Walque (2006) for Cambodia, Shemyakina (2006) for Tajikistan and Swee (2009) for Bosnia.

At this stage, it is difficult to draw out key themes from this literature on violent political conflict as results are still ambiguous and generally not yet comparable. For example,

Shemyakina (2006) found from her empirical work in Tajikistan, that it is girls who suffer the greatest loss in education due to concerns over safety and low returns to girls' education. In contrast, Akresh and de Walque (2008) found that, in Rwanda, it is amongst the male children in non-poor households that these negative shocks are strongest, potentially due to a leveling off of educational achievements to a low level for everyone. Clearly gender is a theme, but it is not always obvious how?

Akbulut-Yuksel (2009) provides causal evidence on the long-term consequences of large-scale physical destruction caused by WWII on the educational attainment, health status and labor market outcomes of German children. This study combines a unique dataset on city-level destruction in Germany caused by Allied Air Forces bombing during WWII, with individual survey data from the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP). She finds significant, long-lasting detrimental effects of bombing on human capital, health and labor market outcomes of individuals who were at school-age during WWII. Sixty years after the end of the war, these individuals, in relation to those not affected by the bombings, had 0.4 fewer years of schooling on average in adulthood. Those in the most hard-hit cities completed 1.2 fewer years of schooling in relation to those not affected by the bombings. They were also about one centimeter shorter and had lower self-reported health satisfaction in adulthood. Despite the seemingly small educational impact of war exposure (between 0.4 and 1.2 years on average), individuals that as children lived in areas of high intense bombing experienced on average a very significant reduction of 6 percent in labor market earnings in relation to those not affected by the bombings. The most important channels driving the educational results were the destruction of schools and the absence of teachers.

Another piece of research which resonates with these findings is that of Ichino and Winter-Ebner (2004). This paper shows that in two European countries involved in WWII - Austria

and Germany - children who were ten years old during the conflict were significantly less likely to proceed into higher education and lost around 20 percent of a year of schooling on average. No effect is found for individuals in the same cohorts living in countries not involved in the war. Their results show the negative educational effects of the war.

In several conflict-affected countries, access to good quality education is seriously imperiled, not only due to the direct effects of fighting, but also because schools, teachers, students and staffs are often targeted by violent attacks. The types of attacks include the burning, vandalization, shelling and bombing of schools, the occupation of schools by armed forces, the murder, torture, abduction and rape of teachers, students, education aid workers and school staffs by armed groups or military forces, and the forced recruitment of child soldiers (O'Malley, 2007, 2010). These attacks lead to the death of teachers and students, the destruction of infrastructure, and result also in severe psychological trauma to those exposed to them.

In face of repeated incidents and threats of attack, children are afraid to go to school, parents will be scared of sending them to school and teachers will be afraid to go to work. Schools will be closed to prevent attacks (IANS, 2009), and governments may be reluctant to reopen schools because threats of attacks may still be present (Mulkeen, 2007). They will also find it difficult to replace teachers in the areas targeted (Mulkeen, 2007). These effects will have long term consequences for the type and quality of schooling available to children in areas of violence.

In a pioneering study on this problem, 'Education Under Attack', O'Malley (2007) found that the number of reported attacks on education had dramatically increased in the preceding three years to the study, indicating that the targeting of schools has become an

effective tactic in conflict areas. The worst affected countries in this report included Afghanistan, Colombia, Iraq, Nepal, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Thailand and Zimbabwe. In the most recent study 'Education Under Attack 2010', O'Malley (2010) found that the situation had improved in Iraq and Nepal, but had deteriorated in Afghanistan, Pakistan and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories. A number of attacks had also been reported in Colombia, Thailand and Zimbabwe, while threats had been made in DR Congo, Niger, Somalia, Sudan and Zimbabwe.

Motives for these attacks on schools, students and staffs vary according to circumstances. In some cases, schools are the only visible symbol of government rule, making them easy targets for rebel groups (O'Malley, 2007). Attacks are also used as a form of control of the population to impose religious, linguistic or cultural identities (Human Rights Watch, 2006), and to recruit personnel, or provide shelter for troops (O'Malley, 2010).

Teachers are also perceived as leaders of communities. Threats and attacks to teachers tend to take place due to their opposition to the forced recruitment of children by armed groups, their positions of leadership in the community, and accusations they face by armed groups of collaborating with opposing groups (Novelli, 2008, Amnesty International, 2007).

Systematic evidence on why, where and how attacks occur is however difficult to collect. High quality monitoring data and systematic reporting of events are very limited, and censorship of information is also common. Developing a deeper understanding of the motives for attack of different targets is however central to any attempts to prevent educational structures being targeted in the future.

Even when educational opportunities exist, parents may be reluctant to send their children to school during armed conflicts. Some need their children to work to contribute to the family economy; others are worried about what their children will learn. During the conflict between the Muslim and Croat factions in Bosnia and Herzegovina, for example, refugee parents were worried about the content of education, particularly in subjects like history, geography and literature. Some parents have religious objections to girls and boys attending school together after a certain age. The recent decision of the Taliban in Afghanistan to curtail girls' access to education in the areas under their control has been of particular concern for United Nations specialized agencies and NGOs.

2.4 Causal Mechanisms Linking Political Conflict and Quality of Education

The literature reviewed above shows a clear negative legacy of violent political conflict on the education quality of individuals exposed to political violence. Amongst the results discussed, a debate has emerged as to what causal mechanisms explain the negative link between violent political conflict and educational outcomes. While it is clear that civil wars affect household education attainment and schooling decisions, it is much less apparent through which channels and for how long these effects will impact on the long-term ability of individuals and households to survive economically, access sustainable forms of livelihood, and make long-term production, consumption or labour decisions. More research therefore needs to be done in terms of uncovering the precise mechanisms through which the relationship operates. Detailed knowledge of the mechanisms that support this negative relationship between conflict and educational outcomes are crucial towards creating and implementing effective policy to ensure these negative consequences are dampened.

Civil wars negatively affect educational outcomes because, during violent political conflict, children are either removed from school or are prevented from attending school. The following sub sections discuss several types of mechanisms that explain the absence or reduction in schooling of children affected by fighting. The focus is on five possible mechanisms noted in the literature: soldiering, household labour allocation decisions, fear, changes in returns to education, teachers and students and displacement.

2.4.1 Child soldiering

The recruitment of child soldiers is a tactic used widely by armies and rebel groups alike to increase the number of fighters, improve logistical support, spread fear and reduce resistance amongst local populations. Children in armies are used as fighters, porters, messengers, cooks and are often forced to provide sexual services. Research indicates that armies find that children are easy to use in battles, easy to manipulate, adventurous, anxious to impress, quick to learn fighting skills, may present moral challenges for their enemies, and are less costly to maintain (USAID, 2007). It is believed that violent political conflicts around the world involve around 300,000 children, both boys and girls, under the age of 18 (Blattman et al, 2007, World Bank, 2005). Most of the few available empirical studies of child soldiers focus on boys, although there is wide recognition of the involvement of girls in armed forces, as combatants and as non-combatants (used as cooks, cleaners, nurses and so forth), and as victims of sexual slavery, forced ‘marriages’, rape and other forms of sexual violence (UNHCR, 2002).

Estimates from 2005 suggest that of the approximately 300,000 child soldiers involved in combat worldwide, 40% of them are girls (Save the Children, 2005). The military recruitment of children, either by armed non-state groups or national armies, is however

still widely underreported, taking place in a variety of forms in over 86 countries and territories worldwide (USAID, 2007).

The recruitment of children into armed groups and armies has considerable impacts on their educational attainment. Boys and girls exposed to conflict may also experience severe psychological effects that continue long after the war is over and will affect their educational outcomes. They may become depressed and socially withdrawn (Yule et al., 2003 as cited in UNFPA, 2006), leading to lower schooling performance or to leave their studies prematurely.

2.4.2 Household labour allocation decisions

Households in conflict-affected countries tend to replace dead, injured or physically and mentally disabled adult workers with children, if these have not become fighters themselves, in order to compensate for the unexpected reduction in the financial resources available to households during wartime. The use of children as a form of economic security mechanism is widely reported in the development economics literature (Dasgupta, 1993; Nugent & Gillaspy, 1983), as is the resort to child labour as a form of compensating for low-incomes (Basu & Van, 1998; Duryea, Lam & Levinson, 2007). In India for example, agricultural households use seasonal school non-attendance by children and child labour as a form of self-insurance in the lean times (Jacoby & Skoufias, 1997). Similarly, in Indonesia, many households were forced to decrease their spending on education after the 1998 financial crisis (Thomas et al., 2004). These studies assume that households in general favour investing in the education of their children. However, when facing unexpected income shocks, households must trade-off future consumption to maintain current consumption (often food) levels. Income uncertainty may therefore adversely affect

the quality and quantity of children's education, and have severe negative consequences on the long-term welfare of households.

Children that are needed to replace labour may be removed from school, which may in turn deplete the household of their stock of human capital for future generations. Akresh and de Walque (2009), Merrouche (2006), Shemyakina (2006) and Swee (2009) point to this mechanism as an explanation for the reduction in educational attainment and enrolment observed in contexts of civil war. In a recent paper, Rodriguez and Sanchez (2009) tested directly the effect of war on child labour and found that violent attacks in Colombian municipalities by armed groups increased significantly the probability of school drop-out, and increased the inclusion of children in the labour market. They showed that increased mortality risks, negative economic shocks and reduction in school quality due to violence are the main channels through which armed conflict reduces human capital investments at the household level and increases child labour. Therefore this study wants to establish whether political conflict affects the quality of education in the same way in Unity State, South Sudan.

The social legacy of the conflict becomes even more profound when one remembers that data allows us to observe information only on those individuals who survive the conflict. In addition, poor individual health and the loss of family members may create serious restraints on access to schooling. In one such study, Evans and Miguel (2004) found that young children in rural Kenya are more likely to drop out of school after the parent's death and that effect is particularly strong for children who lost their mothers.

2.4.3 Changes in returns to education

Violent political conflict may affect considerably the level and distribution of returns to education across social groups and gender. Returns to education in turn play a large role in households' decisions. Due to destruction of industries and infrastructure, job opportunities for skilled labour in conflict-affected countries generally become scarce. Households may respond to job scarcity by redistributing their resources away from investments with lower returns. In wartime contexts, this may mean investing more in the education of boys rather than girls as boys may have a higher probability of finding better paid jobs. This effect is found in Shemyakina (2006) and Chamarbagwala (2008), as discussed in the previous section. Evidence on how this important mechanism operates in different conflicts and across different population groups is however still limited.

2.4.4 Fear

Fear plays an important part in explaining the removal of children from schools during violent events. A recently reported fighting strategy in Afghanistan has been the direct targeting of school children on their way to or from school. More than 100 children were killed in this way between 2006 and 2008, according to UNICEF. This tactic for spreading fear resulted in the closure of around 670 schools in early 2009, depriving around 170,000 children of access to education (IRIN, 2004).

In contexts of violent political conflict, rape and other sexual violence have become common behaviours amongst fighting groups. There have been several reports of acts of sexual violence against children by armed groups and security forces in Sub-Saharan Africa (particularly Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, DR Congo, Somalia, Sudan), Latin America and the Caribbean (Colombia, Haiti), Arab states (Iraq, Palestinian Autonomous Territories), South and West Asia (Afghanistan, Sri Lanka) and East Asia and

the Pacific (Philippines) (IRIN, 2004). One of the worst affected countries is DR Congo, where there were 2,727 cases of sexual violence against children reported (IRIN, 2004). The majority of perpetrators are elements of armed groups. However, national police officers and men from the local community have also exploited the turmoil caused by the war to commit sexual violence against women without fear of punishment (Oxfam, 2001; Ward, 2002).

Fear of physical attacks and sexual violence is likely to hinder the ability of children, particularly although not exclusively girls, to enroll in schools. In such contexts of fear and terror, households may attempt to protect vulnerable members by keeping them at home or sending them away to relatives and friends in more secure locations.

2.4.5 Displacement and forced migration

More than 27 million children are estimated to be out of education as a result of emergency situations. A large proportion of these are internally displaced (Mooney & French. 2005). Displaced children are deprived of education but also of the support provided by educational structures in difficult, often persistently violent, environments. Access to education is an important element to the successful integration of internally displaced populations into their communities as the disruption to normal life and insecurity inherent in refugee and displacement camps can harm children's physical, intellectual, psychological, cultural and social development with long term consequences to their welfare and that of their children (UNHCR, 1994: 38-39). Violent political conflict and the resulting displacement can last decades leaving whole generations without access to education and the social structures provided by schools and teachers. Much greater attention therefore needs to be paid to understanding and overcoming the barriers that populations affected by violent political conflict face in accessing their right to education.

The availability of education in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps is typically disorganized, if it exists at all. Where schools do exist they tend to be temporary, under-resourced, overcrowded and limited to primary education. Accessing schools outside the camps may not be an option due to issues of safety. The loss or confiscation of personal documents also makes enrolment difficult for displaced populations (Aguilar et al., 1998). School fees, the cost of school supplies and travel costs may also pose constraints to the access of education by displaced children (UNHCR/OSCE, 2002). While some governments have implemented fee waivers for displaced children, these policies are rarely observed.

In addition, displaced children do not attend school because their labour is needed to contribute to household income. Boys are employed in farming and other activities like fetching water for sale, while girls are needed to help with domestic work, childcare and agricultural tasks. For those that do manage to get schooling while still working, there are losses in the quality of their education due to chronic fatigue and stress, where students are "too exhausted to realise their potential" (Brookings Institution-SAIS Project on Internal Displacement, 2003). In Colombia, where in 1999 only an estimated 15% of IDP children received some form of education, the academic performance was found to be significantly constrained by high rates of malnutrition, trauma and cognitive disorders (Profiles in Displacement: Colombia cited in Mooney and French, 2005).

2.5 Strategies for Improving Quality of Education in Areas Affected by Political Conflict

The education needs of children remaining within conflict zones must be met (Thomas et al., 2004). Thus, educational activity should to be established as a priority component of all

humanitarian assistance. Educational administrators, who wish to ensure continuity must when possible, collaborate closely with local political and military authorities and be assured of considerable support from a wide range of community groups and NGOs. Indeed, where public sector agencies are absent or severely weakened such groups may provide the only viable institutional frameworks.

Since schools are likely to be targets, one element of the planning process should be to establish alternative sites for classrooms, changing the venues regularly. In Eritrea in the late 1980s, classes were often held under trees, in caves or in camouflaged huts built from sticks and foliage (Shemyakina, 2006). Similar arrangements were made during the height of the fighting in many places in the former Yugoslavia, where classes were held in the cellars of people's homes, often by candlelight (Shemyakina, 2006).

Education can also incorporate flexible systems of distance learning after the conflict has ended, which can be cost-effective when school facilities have been destroyed and teachers have been lost (Mooney & French, 2005). These involve home or group study using pre-packaged teaching materials complemented by broadcast and recorded media. Such systems are particularly valuable for girls when parents are reluctant to have them travel far from home. The statement of the *Second Regional Consultation on the Impact of Armed Conflict on Children in the Arab Region* emphasized the importance of such programmes and called upon governments, educators, NGOs and concerned international bodies to ensure that formal, non-formal and informal education interventions are delivered through a variety of community channels.

When children have been forced to leave their homes and are crowded into displaced persons camps, establishing schooling systems as soon as possible reassures everyone by

signaling a degree of stability and a return to normal roles and relationships within the family and the community (Justino, 2010a). Such education requires only the most basic materials. One important innovation in recent years has been the development by UNESCO and UNICEF of a teacher's emergency pack (TEP), otherwise known as "school-in-a-box". The pack contains very basic items including a brush and paint for a blackboard, chalk, paper, exercise books, pens and pencils. It was first used in Somalia in 1992 and further refined in the refugee camps in Djibouti. The packs were widely used for the rapid establishment of schools for Rwandan refugees at Ngara in Tanzania, where children attended primary grades in tents on a shift basis. Agreements with a number of international NGOs have led to several programmes in which the distribution of TEPs has been linked with teacher training and other initiatives. The TEP is intended to cover the first few months of emergency schooling. Longer-term initiatives require the development of materials tailored to specific groups of children.

Apart from emergency education programmes in camps, refugee children can sometimes attend regular schools in host countries, though very few get the opportunity to do so (Akresh & de Walque, (2008)). Host States can be reluctant to allow refugee education, fearing that this will encourage refugees to remain permanently on their territory. The denial of education clearly contravenes both article 22 of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which require that States parties provide refugee children with the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education.

The 1996 Machel study emphasized that access to quality education is critical to the welfare of children and young people in crisis situations and should be a key component of the humanitarian response. The study highlighted children's need for continuity in

schooling. It stressed that the right to quality education does not lapse under circumstances of crisis or displacement, within the country or in refugee contexts. “Support for the re-establishment and continuity of education must be a priority strategy for donors and NGOs in conflict and post-conflict situations”, the study pointed out.

Not only did the study reassert that education is a basic human right; it also stressed that the structure education provides can help meet children's psychosocial needs in the most extreme circumstances. The study found that education can play a critical role in restoring normalcy for younger children, as well as for adolescents who are entering an important developmental stage in their lives. The study further argued that education providers should better prepare teachers both to cope with the effects of stress on children and to impart vital survival information, such as details about the emergency, landmine safety and HIV prevention.

The Machel study also observed that schools are often targeted during war, and it unequivocally stated that governments and the international community must protect educational facilities from attack. “All possible efforts should be made to maintain education systems during conflicts”, the study stated. “The international community must insist that government or non-state entities involved in conflicts do not target educational facilities and indeed promote active protection of such services”.

The impact of armed conflict on school-going children must be everyone's concern and is everyone's responsibility; therefore the promotion of child protection norms and standards must not be the exclusive domain of one representative or one specialized agency (UNICEF). United Nations officials including those of other agencies have opportunities to raise child protection concerns in high-level settings, including heads of State and at multi-

country summits. Special Representatives of the Secretary General, Resident or Humanitarian Coordinators and Country Representatives have important roles to play in advocating for the application of child protection norms and standards.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology that was used in carrying out the research. It gives a detailed description of how the researcher undertook the study. It consists of the research design, study population, sample size, sampling and procedures, data collection methods and instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, data management, data processing and analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

A cross-sectional study design was adopted in this study. This was because it enabled the researcher obtain information at one point in time about the study issues as Amin (2005) recommends. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used because they supplement each other. The quantitative method helped in providing numerical data, which was statistically manipulated to meet required objectives through descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) and inferential statistics, which tested hypotheses using correlations and coefficient of determination (Amin, 2005; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Qualitative approach was mainly used to describe subjective assessments, analyses and interpretation of attitudes, opinions and behaviours of the respondents as expressed verbatim from the interviews and focus group discussions, (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The quantitative approach involved the collective application of data in quantitative analysis and manipulation and was expressed in frequencies and percentages as Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) suggest. This was because there was need to outlay some information statistically in order to bring out the statistical aspects of the study clearly. Using a combination of qualitative and quantitative data allows triangulation by ensuring that the limitations of one type of data are balanced by the strengths of another.

3.3 Population of Study

The study population included all the 336 primary schools and their stakeholders (pupils, parents, teachers, the surrounding local community members, NGOs and local education officers). Thus, the study targeted a population of 116,030 pupils, 14,503 parents, 3,650 teachers, 700,000 local community members, 6 NGOs and 5 local education officers. This population was too big to be included in the study. Therefore, the study targeted an accessible population. This included 10 primary schools and their stakeholders (pupils, parents, teachers, the surrounding local community members, NGOs and local education officers). Thus, the study targeted a population of 500 pupils, 10 parents, 80 teachers, 30 local community members, 6 NGOs and 5 local education officers.

The local communities were targeted because they sent children to school and were in position to provide information on political conflict affecting their efforts to achieving this. Children were targeted because they were entitled to quality education and thus were able to provide information on the quality of education they received during political conflict. Teachers were at the centre of educating children and were in position to provide information on how political conflict affected their role. Local education officials implement and supervise education policies and were used as key informants on the effect of political conflict on quality of education. NGO members provided information about their efforts to providing and improving education in conflict affected areas.

3.4 Determining of Sample Size

A total of 332 respondents were selected using Morgan and Krejcie (1970) sample size table as shown in the following table.

Table 1: Representation of sample size

Category of people	Population	Sample Size	Sampling Strategy
Local community people	30	28	Convenience
Pupils	500	217	Simple random
Teachers	80	66	Simple random
Parents	10	10	Convenience
Local education officials	5	5	Purposive
NGO members	6	6	Purposive
Total	**631**	**332**	

3.5 Sampling Techniques and Procedure

A number of sampling techniques were used. **Simple random sampling** technique was used in order to accord an equal opportunity to select teachers and pupils. To achieve this, a random number table together with lists of respondents with names in alphabetical order was used. First, numbers were selected from the random number table and compared to the names for each category of respondents on the lists. Thus, if a number was similar to the number on the list, then that respondent was selected.

Purposive sampling was used to specifically select local education officials and NGO members. To apply purposive sampling, only people thought to have more knowledge about the information the study solicited were selected. The criteria used were positions of responsibility, tenure and experience in issues related to political conflict and education. Purposive sampling technique enabled the researcher to be able to solicit responses from vital and strategic individuals with expertise and knowledge of political conflict and quality of education in South Sudan.

Convenience sampling was used to select parents and local community members. This method was preferred because it was used in selection of whomever community members the researcher came across, which saved on time for selecting this category of respondents.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

3.6.1 Questionnaire survey

A questionnaire survey is a research method that was used for collecting data from a selected group of pupils, teachers and parents using standardized questionnaires. This method involved collecting information from a sample of individuals in a systematic way. Questionnaire survey was used for this category of respondents to save on time because their number was big for interviewing.

3.6.2 Face-to-face interview

Face-to-face interviews were used to collect data from local education officers and NGO members because they enabled the researcher to establish rapport with these categories of respondents and therefore gain their cooperation. They also allowed the researcher to clarify ambiguous answers and obtain in-depth information through probing. Semi structured-interviews were designed to collect data for this study. Open-ended questions were used to capture other valuable questions that emerged from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee. Semi-structured interviews are the most widely used interviewing formats for qualitative research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). In this study, the probing interviewing tactic was used extensively to obtain a deeper explanation of the issue at hand from the respondents. This was largely due to the fact that the respondents often needed stimuli to expand or clarify their own answers and ideas more broadly, so that a broader understanding was more easily reached later on in the findings of this study.

3.6.3 Documentary Review

Secondary data was obtained from documentation centres, resource centres and institutional records. Sources like journals, articles, reports and text books were used in

gathering and compiling the information. These documents and reports helped to supplement and substantiate data obtained using other instruments.

3.6.4 Focus Group Discussions

This was used to collect data from knowledgeable local community members. A group of 6 to 10 community members participated into two groups. Therefore four group discussions were conducted.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

For successful data collection, various techniques were used to gather information from the respondents. These included questionnaires, observation checklist, interview and focus group discussion guides.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Semi-structured questionnaires were designed in line with the themes, sub themes and objectives of the study. These were physically distributed and administered by the researcher and/or research assistants to the selected respondents (pupils, teachers and parents). Questionnaires were appropriate and particularly useful in situations where the researcher did not have enough time for interview. The technique was useful in getting much information from big sections of study respondents.

3.7.2 Interview guide

Interview was another important technique that was used in collecting information from the key respondents. It was important because the researcher was able to clarify on different issues that were otherwise misunderstood by respondents, provided opportunity for first hand acquisition of information, which was almost instant. An Interview guide was used

during interview to guide the researcher in avoiding deviations from the intended issues. This method supplemented the information gathered through other means such as questionnaires, focus group discussions, observation and documentary review.

3.7.3 Observation

Observation checklist was drawn in order to guide the researcher on the required observable aspects of the study. Observation helped in verification of certain salient and sensitive issues of the study.

3.7.4 Focus Group Discussions guide

The researcher also arranged for 4 focus group discussions among knowledgeable community members. This supplemented information obtained through other methods and techniques. Focus group discussions were important because they assisted in acquiring firsthand information; responses were instant and gave opportunity for deeper insight through probing on different aspects of the study.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of Instruments

3.8.1 Validity of instruments

Validity of questionnaires was important to establish in order to ensure that the questions solicited information that was required as per the objectives of the study. To achieve this, the instruments were given to two lecturers conversant with the study topic who commented on the clarity and/or ambiguity, content coverage, construction and relevancy of the questions, which comments were addressed during instrument designing. Comments regarding relevancy were also used to determine the content validity index (CVI) using the following formula:

CVI = No. of items rated relevant by two lecturers
Total no. of items rated by the lecturers

The following table summarizes the rating.

Table 2: Ratings of the questions

Raters	Items rated relevant	Items rated not relevant	Total	Items rated relevant	Items rated not relevant	Total	Items rated relevant	Items rated not relevant	Total
Rater 1	49	13	62	49	17	66	48	14	62
Rater 2	45	17	62	48	14	62	43	19	62
Total	94	30	124	97	31	128	91	33	124

Thus, Pupil questionnaire CVI = $\frac{94}{124} \approx .758$

Teacher questionnaire CVI = $\frac{97}{128} \approx .757$

Parent questionnaire CVI = $\frac{91}{124} \approx .734$

The CVIs were all above the recommended .70 as suggested by Amin (2005). Because of this, the questionnaires were considered valid for data collection.

3.8.2 Reliability of instruments

After establishing the validity of instruments ready for data collection, the instruments were pre-tested using a few selected respondents in the study area to determine their reliability. The purpose of this was to ensure that the questions constructed were consistent in obtaining information across the targeted sample groups. The Cronbach reliability coefficient was computed in this study because according to Amin (2005) and Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), it is the most suitable as it compares each item to the rest of the items measuring a certain variable to finding out if the way respondents answered on this item is similar to the way respondents answered to the rest of the items. The following formula was used:

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{k-1}\left(1 - \frac{\Sigma SD_i^2}{SD_t^2}\right)$$

where α = Cronbach reliability coefficient

k = No. of items

ΣSD_i^2 = summation of variances of items

SD_t^2 = variance of scale

The reliabilities for the instruments on each variable are summarized in the following table.

Table 3: Reliabilities of the variables

Variables	**Pupil questionnaire**		**Teacher questionnaire**		**Parent questionnaire**	
	Alpha	**No. of items**	**Alpha**	**No. of items**	**Alpha**	**No. of items**
Political conflict	.784	30	.904	30	.997	30
Causal mechanisms	.762	14	.770	14	.993	14
Quality of education	.890	18	.801	18	.993	18

From Table 3 it can be seen that all the alphas were above the .70 recommended value as Amin (2005) suggests. Therefore, the questionnaires were considered reliable for data collection.

3.9 Procedure of Data Collection

Before proceeding to the field for data collection, the School of Management Sciences provided the researcher with a letter of introduction to request for permission to conduct the study addressed ‘to whom it may concern’. The letter was presented to the authorities in Unity State seeking permission to conduct the study. Once permission was granted, the researcher and/or research assistants assured participants of confidentiality as they met them during data collection. Knowledge of the participants was sought for and interviews including focus group discussions plus observation were scheduled and carried out.

Records from the fieldwork were kept and these include; the number of respondents reached, appointments for interviews and collection of instruments. After this, the data was collected, processed and interpreted using qualitative and quantitative methods. A draft of the research report was then written, proof-read, adjustments made, and then a final script typed, bound, and then handed in to the supervisors for approval.

3.10 Data Management and Analysis

Preliminary analysis of data was done right away in the field soon after data collection. This involved summarizing information collected from different respondents through transcription, explanation and prediction of the answers guided by use of research themes and sub themes and according to the content of the interview guide, observation guide and questionnaires and document analysis. However, two major types of analyses were conducted. These were quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis.

3.10.1 Quantitative analysis

Primary quantitative data analysis was done with the assistance of a computer program known as the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS). This helped to produce descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages and inferential statistics such as correlations and coefficients of determination. Recommended descriptive statistics for interval scale that was used in this study include mode, mean, median, variance, standard deviation, frequencies and percentages. In this study, frequencies and percentages were used in univariate analysis that is analysis involving one variable at a time without determining its effect on another variable. The purpose here was to determine respondents' views on each question per variable and later conclude their views on the variable. To arrive at this, respondents who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were computed into one category as "opposed" to the items. In addition, respondents who strongly agreed

and those who agreed were computed into another category as "concurred" to the items. Thus, three groups of respondents were compared: "Those who opposed the items", "Those who were not sure of the items" and "Those who concurred to the items".

Regarding correlation, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used. This was because the measurement scale that accompanied the questionnaire was interval in nature. With an interval scale, the recommended inferential statistical analysis linking one variable to another is Pearson correlation. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable whereby at zero (0) there was no strength in the relationship and as the coefficient tended to +1 or -1, the stronger the relationship. The sign of the correlation coefficient was used to determine the change in direction of the independent and dependent variables where by +ve implied that change in variables was in same direction while -ve sign implied that change in variables was in opposite directions. Since the correlation coefficient does not measure causal effect as the hypotheses of this study indicated, the coefficient of determination, which is a square of the correlation coefficient, was computed. This enabled to determine the change in the dependent variable caused by the independent variables. The significance of the correlation coefficient was used to test the hypotheses by comparing the computed p-value with the standard p-value at 0.05. If the computed p-value was less than or equal to the standard p-value at 0.05, the hypotheses would be accepted while if the computed p-value was greater than the standard p-value at 0.05, the hypotheses would be rejected.

3.10.2 Qualitative analysis

Primary qualitative data analysis involved analyzing the content of qualitative data; summarizing the data into themes, sub themes and reporting the data as quotations. A

thematic approach was used where themes were presented in form of quotations to supplement the quantitative data analysis.

3.11 Measurement of Variables

Measurement of variables gave the researcher information regarding the extent to which the individuals differed on a given variable (Mugenda and Mugenda, (1999)). Nominal and interval scales were used to measure variables. Sekaran (2005) says nominal scales allow a researcher to assign subjects to certain mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive categories while interval scales allow the researcher to categorize the subjects. It was upon this basis that the appropriate measurements of instruments were used to measure and categorize data. The interval scale was a five Likert Scale on the questionnaire as shown below;

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree

The scale helped the researcher to measure the extent to which objectives were achieved.

3.12 Ethical Consideration

The principles of research ethics - informed consent, privacy and confidentiality, and accuracy were adhered to during the study. In order to secure the participation of students in this study, a letter of introduction from the School of Management Sciences requesting for permission to conduct the study addressed “to whom it may concern” was presented to the authorities in Unity State seeking permission to conduct the study. A covering letter accompanied the research instruments explaining the purpose of the study. The cover letter was also used to provide access to the interview process, which was done on appointments. Participants were informed that participation in the study is by freewill and anyone who felt

like not participating was not forced. Participants received full disclosure of the nature of the study, the risks, benefits and alternatives, with an extended opportunity to ask pertinent questions regarding the research. The researcher treated all information provided by participants with maximum confidentiality. This was achieved by assigning respondents codes instead of using the actual names of the respondents, which were known to other people. Honesty and accuracy were maintained throughout the research process; in reporting data, results, methods and procedures in order to avoid fabrication, falsification, or misrepresentation of data. The questions used were more or less the same only that pupils mostly responded to structured questions only. All selected pupil respondents were assembled in a classroom at different intervals and questionnaires administered to them with instructions not to write their names on the questionnaire and more assurance that the information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality. The pupils were given a chance of asking the researcher questions where some of them did not quickly understand anything in the questionnaire. All quotations used and sources consulted were clearly distinguished and acknowledged by means of references.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyzes and interprets the results. It is divided into five major sections. The first section presents results about the response rate. The second section presents results on pupils, teachers and parents' background information. The third section presents results on political shocks and quality of education in primary schools. The fourth section presents results on exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools. The fifth section presents results on causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools. The fifth section presents results on strategies for improving quality of education in primary schools.

4.2 Response Rate

Response rate (also known as completion rate or return rate) in survey research refers to the number of people who answered the survey divided by the number of people in the sample. It is usually expressed in the form of a percentage. A low response rate can give rise to sampling bias if the non-response is unequal among the participants regarding exposure and/or outcome. In this study, the sample size was 332 pupils, teachers and parents but the study managed to access 311 pupils, teachers and parents. The break down is shown in the following table.

Table 4: Response rate

Pupils, teachers and parents	Sampled size	Responses received	Percentage %
Local community people	28	20	71%
Pupils	217	217	100%
Teachers	66	57	86%
Parents	10	10	100%
Local education officials	5	3	60%
NGO members	6	4	67%
Total	332	311	94%

Source: Data from field

Thus, the response rate of 94% was above the recommended two-thirds (67%) response rate (Amin, 2005; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Therefore, the results were considered representative of what would have been obtained from the population.

4.3 Pupils, Teachers and Parents' Background

Pupils, teachers and parents were asked about their age, class and sex. This information was required to ensure that the sample that participated in the study have similar distribution of the respondents by the characteristics to that of the population it was drawn from. This determines the accuracy and representativeness of information drawn from the sample to the population. Findings regarding their age are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Distribution of pupils, teachers and parents by age

Age of pupils, teachers and parents	Respondents			Total
	Pupils	Teachers	Parents	
9 to 14 years	110 (51%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	110 (39%)
15 to 20 years	76 (35%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	76 (27%)
21 to 25 years	23 (11%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	23 (8%)
26 to 30 years	0 (0%)	24 (42%)	0 (0%)	24 (8%)
31 to 35 years	8 (4%)	23 (40%)	9 (90%)	40 (14%)
36 to 40 years	0 (0%)	10 (18%)	1 (10%)	11 (4%)
Total	217 (100%)	57 (100%)	10 (100%)	284 (100%)

Source: Data from field

Findings in Table 5 show that most pupils that participated in the study (86%) were aged 9 to 20 years, most teachers (82%) were aged 26 to 35 years while most parents (90%) were aged 31 to 35 years. These findings are similar to the age distribution in the population of pupils, teachers and parents. Thus, the sample findings about the relationship between political conflict and quality of education are not biased by the age of the respondents. Findings related to the class of pupils are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of pupils by class

Class of pupil	Frequency	Percent
P3	17	7.8
P4	59	27.2
P5	13	6.0
P6	82	37.8
P7	18	8.3
P8	28	12.9
Total	217	100.0

Source: Data from field

Findings in Table 6 show that most pupils who participated in the study (65%) were from primary five to eight. However, findings also show that pupils who participated in the study were from at least most of the classes with the exception of primary one and two. Thus, the study tried to involve pupils from most of the classes. The implication is that information about the relationship between political conflict and quality of education was obtained from pupils across most of the classes. Findings related to the sex of pupils, teachers and parents are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Distribution of pupils, teachers and parents by sex

Sex of pupils, teachers and parents	Respondents			Total
	Pupils	Teachers	Parents	
Male	153 (71%)	42 (74%)	8 (80%)	203 (71%)
Female	64 (29%)	15 (26%)	2 (20%)	81 (29%)
Total	217 (100%)	57 (100%)	10 (100%)	284 (100%)

Source: Data from field

Findings in Table 7 show that most pupils that participated in the study (71%), most teachers (74%) and most parents (90%) were male. These findings are similar to the sex distribution in the population of pupils and teachers but not the distribution in the population of parents. The implication that information obtained from pupils and teachers was more likely to reflect what would have been obtained from the population from which they were drawn while that obtained from parents was more likely to not reflect what would have been obtained from the population from which they were drawn.

4.4 Political shocks and Quality of Education in Primary Schools in Unity State, South Sudan

In this section, descriptive statistics will be presented before testing hypotheses. The descriptive statistics that were used were frequencies and percentages while the inferential statistics were Pearson correlation and coefficient of determination.

4.4.1 Descriptive results about political shocks in Unity State, South Sudan

Pupils, teachers and parents were requested to respond to 18 items about political shocks by indicating their agreement using a five-point Likert Scale as shown in Table 8. The items are presented in the first column of Table 8 and the proportion of pupils, teachers and parents to the responses on each of the items is presented in form of frequencies and percentages in columns 2 to 6. The last column presents the total percentage of pupils, teachers and parents on each of the items. The analysis and interpretation of the findings about political shocks follows the presentation of findings in Table 8.

Table 8: Findings about political shocks

Items about political shocks	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. The armed conflict destroyed markets	7%	0%	4%	66%	23%	100%
2. The armed conflict destroyed supply lines for goods	2%	7%	12%	46%	33%	100%
3. The armed conflict destroyed communications	5%	3%	10%	53%	29%	100%
4. The armed conflict destroyed transportation	4%	4%	6%	36%	50%	100%
5. The armed conflict destroyed roads	4%	6%	9%	46%	35%	100%
6. Jobs were lost because of the armed conflict	6%	4%	4%	38%	48%	100%
7. Working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict	3%	5%	16%	43%	33%	100%
8. The armed conflict destroyed health centers	2%	8%	4%	40%	46%	100%
9. The armed conflict destroyed schools	5%	2%	4%	63%	26%	100%
10. The armed conflict destroyed recreation centers	2%	4%	7%	62%	25%	100%
11. Children were targeted during armed conflict	4%	14%	4%	54%	24%	100%
12. Teachers were targeted during armed conflict	7%	2%	5%	62%	24%	100%
13. Teachers were killed during armed conflict	2%	5%	8%	56%	29%	100%
14. Schools were occupied during armed conflict	2%	7%	2%	55%	34%	100%
15. Teachers were afraid to teach during armed conflict	7%	1%	8%	63%	21%	100%
16. Schools were closed during armed conflict	3%	7%	13%	49%	28%	100%
17. Looting occurred during armed conflict	6%	4%	9%	47%	34%	100%
18. Aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population	5%	4%	4%	33%	54%	100%

Source: Data from field

Key: SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, NS = Not sure, A = Agree, SA = Strongly agree

To analyze the findings, pupils, teachers and parents who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were combined into one category of who "opposed" the items. In addition, pupils, teachers and parents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were combined into another category of who "concurred" with the items. Thus, three categories of pupils, teachers and parents were compared, which included "pupils, teachers and parents who opposed the items", "pupils, teachers and parents with not sure to the items" and "pupils, teachers and parents who concurred with the items". Interpretation was then drawn from the comparisons of the three categories as shown in the following paragraph.

Findings in Table 8 show that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 18 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows

that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 6% to 18% while the percentage of those that were not sure ranged from 2% to 16% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 76% to 89%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages of those that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Findings show that the armed conflict destroyed markets, supply lines for goods, communications, transportation, roads, health centers, schools and recreation centers. In addition, jobs were lost and working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict and during armed conflict, children and teachers were targeted, teachers were killed, schools were occupied, teachers were afraid to teach, schools were closed and looting occurred. Lastly, aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population.

The questionnaires findings generally revealed that political shocks in Unity State, South Sudan primary schools were high. In support of these findings were interviews and group discussions' findings that shaded more light about political shocks. For example, during the interview, when the key informants were asked the effect of armed conflict on economic life of the people in the area, it was revealed that people had multiple losses including life and property. As narrated by one education official X that, "*The State suffered loss of lives, human resources, property and homeland (Interview with an education official X on 2nd February 2013)*''. Findings from the group discussions also revealed that the effect of armed conflict on economic life of the people in the area was loss of close relatives, loss of property (like cattle that were stolen and shelter that was burnt), attacks on vehicles transporting goods to and from the area and failure of people to engage in productive agriculture. These findings explain how the economic life of the people in Unity State was negatively affected due to the political conflict in Southern Sudan.

When asked about the effect of armed conflict on social life of the people in this area, many revealed that the effects were separation of families, denial of quality education, abuse of children and change of culture. For example, the education official Y had this to say, "*Many facilities were separated and children were lost. The families traded their daughters for life. Many school going children were denied access to quality education and many families fled to neighboring countries for safety (Interview with another education official Y on 2nd February 2013)*". During the group discussion, the following was revealed:

> *Young girls were raped and the political conflict could not allow the community to have permanent settlements and think about education. There was recruitment of school age children to join the army. Promotion of random sexual activities led to sexually transmitted diseases and affected female productivity. In schools, poor health due to the conflict was a big factor affecting enrolment. People were traumatized and scared. Few people were left behind as many sought refuge in other areas. Boys could not go to schools, as they had to keep looking after cattle so that they are not stolen. Culture changed during the war, for example, in Nuer culture, girls are sources of wealth but during the war, soldiers randomly took the girls. Mutual trust between the community and the security forces was lost. Soldiers normally occupied schools because of lack of barracks and students were sent home (Group discussion, 3rd February 2013).*

Thus, these findings show that political conflict in Southern Sudan compromised both the economic and social lives of the people in Unity State.

4.4.2 Descriptive results about quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

Pupils, teachers and parents responded to 18 items about quality of education in primary schools by indicating their agreement using a five-point Likert Scale as shown in Tables 8 - 11. The items are presented in the first column of Table 8, 9, 10 and 11 and the proportion of pupils, teachers and parents to the responses on each of the items is presented in form of percentages in columns 2 to 6 respectively. The last columns present the total percentage of pupils, teachers and parents on each of the items. The analysis and interpretation of the findings follow the presentation of findings in Tables.

Education access in primary schools

There were four questions about education access in primary schools. Findings about education access are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Findings about education access in primary schools

Items about education access	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. Children in our home find it difficult to attend school	5%	2%	4%	74%	15%	100%
2. There are very few schools near our home	3%	4%	8%	66%	19%	100%
3. Boys find it difficult to attend schools than girls	6%	17%	5%	60%	12%	100%
4. Very few children attend school	10%	7%	4%	53%	26%	100%

Source: Data from field
Key: SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree NS = Not Sure A = Agree
SA = Strongly Agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 4 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 7% to 23% while the percentage of those that were not sure ranged from 4% to 8% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 72% to 89%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the

range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Findings relating to education access above show that children found difficulty to attend school, there were very few schools near homes, and boys found it difficult to attend schools than girls and very few children attended school.

Education attainment

There were four questions about education attainment. Findings about education attainment are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Findings about education attainment in primary schools

Items about education attainment	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. Many children in this area have started schooling very late	5%	2%	6%	61%	26%	100%
2. Many children in this area have completed less levels of schooling	5%	6%	4%	58%	27%	100%
3. Girls have suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys	2%	3%	10%	61%	24%	100%
4. Many children dropout of school	8%	0%	7%	50%	35%	100%
5. Many children repeat classes	4%	5%	6%	54%	31%	100%

Source: Data from field
Key: SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree NS = Not sure A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 5 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 5% to 11% while the percentage that were not sure ranged from 4% to 10% and the percentage of that concurred ranged from 85% to 87%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages of those that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages of those that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Relating to education attainment, it is shown that many children in this area started schooling very late and completed less levels of schooling. Girls (>80 %) suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys (<20%), and many children dropped out of school and repeated classes.

School infrastructure in primary schools

There were three questions about school infrastructure in primary schools. Findings about school infrastructure are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Findings about school infrastructure in primary schools

Items about school infrastructure	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. There are few school buildings	2%	8%	3%	44%	43%	100%
2. The school buildings are in a poor state	5%	0%	8%	36%	51%	100%
3. School buildings were destroyed during the political conflict	4%	7%	0%	56%	33%	100%

Source: Data from field
Key: SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree NS = Not Sure A = Agree
SA = Strongly Agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 3 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 5% to 11% while the percentage of those that were not sure ranged from 0% to 8% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 87% to 89%. From these comparisons, it can be concluded that the range of percentages of those that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages of those that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. As for school infrastructure, it is shown that there were few school buildings (44%), school buildings were in a poor state and were destroyed during the political conflict (56%).

Availability of teachers in primary schools

There were three questions about availability of teachers in primary schools. Findings about availability of teachers are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Findings about availability of teachers in primary schools

Items about availability of teachers	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. There are few school teachers	4%	3%	2%	47%	44%	100%
2. Teachers are always late	9%	3%	6%	49%	33%	100%
3. Teachers are always absent	4%	10%	3%	51%	32%	100%

Source: Data from field

Key: SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree NS = Not Sure A = Agree,
SA = Strongly Agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 3 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 7% to 14% while the percentage of those that were not sure ranged from 2% to 6% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 82% to 91%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Findings regarding availability of teachers show that there were few school teachers, teachers were always late and absent.

Schooling capacity in primary schools

There were three questions about schooling capacity in primary schools. Findings about schooling capacity are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Findings about schooling capacity in primary schools

Items about schooling capacity	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. Schools have few teaching materials	2%	8%	1%	53%	36%	100%
2. The classrooms are very few	2%	5%	1%	68%	24%	100%
3. The classrooms are very small	4%	2%	4%	50%	40%	100%

Source: Data from field
Key: SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree, NS = Not Sure A = Agree,
SA = Strongly Agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 3 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 7% to 10% while the percentage that were not sure ranged from 1% to 4% and the percentage of that

concurred ranged from 89% to 92%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Schooling capacity findings show that schools had few teaching materials and the classrooms were very few and very small.

After establishing pupils, teachers and parents' views on each of the variables under the first objective, the next step was to test the first hypothesis using inferential statistics. Findings are presented in section 4.4.3.

4.4.3 Testing first hypothesis

The first hypothesis stated, "*Political shocks have a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*". Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to determine the strength of the relationship between political shocks and the quality of education in primary schools. The coefficient of determination was used to determine the effect of political shocks on the quality of education in primary schools. The significance of the coefficient (p) was used to test the hypothesis by comparing p to the critical significance level at (0.05). This procedure was applied in testing the other hypotheses and thus, a lengthy introduction is not repeated in the subsequent sections of hypothesis testing. Table 14 presents the test results for the first hypothesis.

Table 14: Correlation between political shocks and quality of education in primary schools

	Political shocks
Quality of education in primary schools	r = -.907 *rho* ^{2} = .823 p = .000 n =284

Source: Data from field

Findings show that there was a very strong negative correlation (r = -.907) between political shocks and quality of education in primary schools. Since the correlation does imply causal-effect as stated in the first objective, the coefficient of determination, which is a square of the correlation coefficient (r^2 = .823), was computed and expressed as a percentage to determine the variance in quality of education in primary schools due to political shocks. Thus, findings show that political shocks accounted for 82.3% variance in quality of education in primary schools. These findings were subjected to a test of significance (p) and it is shown that the significance of the correlation (p = .000) is less than the recommended critical significance at 0.05. Thus, the effect was significant. Because of this, the hypothesis "*Political shocks have a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" was accepted.

The implication of these findings is that the very strong correlation implied that a change in political shocks contributed to a very big change in quality of education in primary schools. The negative nature of the correlation implied that the change in political shocks and quality of education in primary schools was in the opposite direction whereby an increase in the political shocks contributed to a decrease in the quality of education in primary schools and vice versa.

4.5 Exposure of Households to Political Violence and Quality of Education in Primary Schools in Unity State, South Sudan

Before testing the second hypothesis, descriptive results relating to exposure of households to political violence were presented, analyzed and interpreted. Findings are presented in the following subsection.

4.5.1 Descriptive results about exposure of households to political violence in Unity State, South Sudan

Pupils, teachers and parents were requested to respond to 12 items about exposure of households to political violence by indicating their agreement using a five-point Likert Scale as shown in Table 9. The items are presented in the first column of Table 13 and the proportion of pupils, teachers and parents to the responses on each of the items is presented in form of percentages in columns 2 to 6. The last column presents the total percentage of pupils, teachers and parents on each of the items. The analysis and interpretation of the findings about exposure of households to political violence follows the presentation of findings in Table 15.

Table 15: Findings about exposure of households to political violence

Items about exposure of households to political violence	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. Our family has ever been caught in armed conflicts in our area	18%	10%	6%	39%	27%	100%
2. Several times, our family has been caught in armed conflicts in our area	8%	5%	5%	35%	47%	100%
3. Our family has ever seen armed conflicts in our area	13%	6%	13%	38%	30%	100%
4. Several times, our family has seen armed conflicts in our area	5%	7%	1%	38%	49%	100%
5. Our family has ever heard about armed conflicts in our area	10%	4%	3%	59%	24%	100%
6. Several times, our family has heard about armed conflicts in our area	3%	5%	8%	57%	27%	100%
7. We lost family members during armed conflict	5%	14%	3%	49%	29%	100%
8. Our family members were sexually violated during armed conflict	7%	3%	4%	55%	31%	100%
9. Our family members were physically beaten during armed conflict	3%	5%	8%	53%	31%	100%
10. Our family members were mentally tortured during armed conflict	4%	7%	2%	52%	35%	100%
11. Our family was looted during armed conflict	7%	2%	4%	62%	25%	100%
12. Aggression against our family harmed family members	2%	7%	13%	47%	31%	100%

Source: Data from field

Key: SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, NS = Not sure, A = Agree, SA = Strongly agree

Findings show that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 12 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows

that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 8% to 28% while the percentage that were not sure ranged from 1% to 13% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 66% to 87%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Findings show that on occasions in Unity State, most families had ever been caught in, seen and heard about armed conflicts. In addition, most households lost family members and family members were sexually violated, physically beaten and mentally tortured during armed conflict. Lastly, most families were looted during armed conflict and aggression against families harmed family members.

Interviews shade some light on how households were exposed to political violence. Households exposure to political violence was in the form of loss of human life, misery among household members, recruitment of children in the conflict and denial of education to children, For example, one of the education official X interviewed said;

> *"Many household members were burnt in houses accused of siding with the freedom fighters that were called outlaws. The Arabs divided the southern into militia groups supported by the Sudan Government. These groups were responsible for loss of many lives and misery in the area. Children were recruited into the militias and were denied from attending school and encouraged to take up arms to fight fellow Southerners. If they failed to comply, they were killed". (Interview with an education official X on 2nd February 2013)*

Other households' exposures to political violence were identified during the group discussion. Among these included displacement of communities, looting of people's property, injury arising from conflicts, contamination of drinking water, and exposure to diseases. In response to the question, group discussion members revealed thus;

"Community members were displaced or forced to vacate their houses to create room for soldiers. Civilian belongings were looted. Some community members were injured by landmines while collecting firewood from the bushes. Water was contaminated by ammunition shells and bombings. The community got exposed to diseases as a result of the conflict". (Group discussion, 3rd February 2013)

These findings show that households socially, economically and health-wise were exposed to violence from the political conflict and that children lost an opportunity to grow in a humane environment given that they were exposed to atrocities during the conflict and denied a right to education and health care.

After establishing pupils, teachers and parents' views on exposure of households to political violence, the next step was to test the second hypothesis using inferential statistics. Findings are presented in section 4.5.2.

4.5.2 Testing second hypothesis

The second hypothesis stated, "*Exposure of households to political violence has a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*". Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to test the hypothesis. Table 16 presents the test results.

Table 16: Correlation between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools

	Exposure of households to political violence
Quality of education in primary schools	r = -.776 r^2 = .602 p = .000 n = 284

Source: Data from field

Findings show that there was a strong negative correlation (r = -.776) between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools. The

coefficient of determination (r^2 = .602) shows that exposure of households to political violence accounted for 60.2% variance in quality of education in primary schools. These findings were subjected to a test of significance (p) and it shows that the significance of the correlation (p = .000) is less than the recommended critical significance at 0.05. Thus, the effect was significant. Because of this, the hypothesis, "*Exposure of households to political violence has a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" was accepted.

Thus, the implication of the findings was that the strong correlation implied that a change in exposure of households to political violence contributed to a strong change in quality of education in primary schools. The negative nature of the correlation implied that the change in exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools was in the opposite direction whereby more exposure of households to political violence contributed to a decline in quality of education in primary schools and vice versa.

4.6 Causal Mechanisms Linking Political Conflict and Quality of Education in Primary Schools in Unity State, South Sudan

Before testing the third hypothesis, descriptive results relating to causal mechanisms were presented, analyzed and interpreted. Findings are presented in the following subsection.

4.6.1 Descriptive results about causal mechanisms in Unity State, South Sudan

Pupils, teachers and parents were requested to respond to 14 items about causal mechanisms by indicating their agreement using a five-point Likert Scale as shown in Table 17. The items are presented in the first column of Table 17 and the proportion of pupils, teachers and parents to the responses on each of the items is presented in form of percentages in columns 2 to 6. The last column presents the total percentage of pupils,

teachers and parents on each of the items. The analysis and interpretation of the findings about causal mechanisms follows the presentation of findings in Table 17.

Table 17: Findings about causal mechanisms

Items about causal mechanisms	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. The recruitment of child soldiers contributed to the reduction of children attending schools	6%	2%	9%	56%	27%	100%
2. There are child soldiers experiencing severe mental problems making them unable to attend school	4%	5%	7%	36%	48%	100%
3. There are child soldiers experiencing severe emotional problems making them unable to attend school	4%	6%	8%	50%	32%	100%
4. Due to loss of family members who would work during armed conflict our family had to use child to work for their survival	6%	4%	2%	40%	48%	100%
5. Parents favored educating boys than girls during armed conflict	2%	6%	14%	46%	31%	99%
6. Fear of physical attacks hindered the ability of children to attend schools	3%	7%	0%	41%	49%	100%
7. Fear of sexual violence hindered the ability of children to attend schools	5%	2%	5%	64%	24%	100%
8. We run away from our communities during armed conflict between government forces and armed rebel forces	2%	5%	6%	61%	26%	100%
9. We run away from our communities during armed conflict between various rebel forces	4%	14%	2%	57%	23%	100%
10. We run away from our communities when armed rebel forces attacked our village	7%	2%	4%	62%	25%	100%
11. We run away from our communities in anticipation of armed conflicts	2%	8%	5%	57%	28%	100%
12. We run away from our communities in fear of being singled out for mistreatment (persecution)	3%	7%	1%	58%	31%	100%
13. We run away from our communities because we were targeted by armed rebel forces	7%	1%	5%	63%	24%	100%
14. We run away from our communities because we were targeted by government forces	3%	7%	12%	52%	26%	100%

Source: Data from field

Key: SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, NS = Not sure, A = Agree, SA = Strongly agree

Findings indicate that most pupils, teachers and parents concurred with all the 14 items compared to pupils, teachers and parents who opposed these items while few pupils, teachers and parents were not sure with these items. A comparison on these items shows that the percentage of pupils, teachers and parents that opposed ranged from 7% to 18% while the percentage that were not sure ranged from 0% to 14% and the percentage of those that concurred ranged from 77% to 90%. From these comparisons, it can be seen that the range of percentages that opposed and were not sure are lower compared to the range of percentages that concurred. Thus, from this analysis, the following is the interpretation. Findings show that the recruitment of child soldiers contributed to the reduction of children

attending schools, there were child soldiers experiencing severe mental emotional problems making them unable to attend school and due to loss of family members who would work during armed conflict, families had to use children to work for their survival. In addition, it is shown that parents favored educating boys than girls during armed conflict and fear of physical attacks and sexual violence hindered the ability of children to attend schools. Furthermore, findings show that people run away from communities during armed conflict between government forces and armed rebel forces and during armed conflict between various armed rebel forces, and when armed rebel forces attacked villages. Lastly, people run away from communities in anticipation of armed conflicts, in fear of being singled out for mistreatment (persecution) because they were targeted by armed rebel forces and government forces.

After establishing pupils, teachers and parents' views on causal mechanisms, the next step was to test the third hypothesis using inferential statistics. Findings are presented in section 4.6.2.

4.6.2 Testing third hypothesis

The third hypothesis stated, "*Causal mechanisms have a significant negative contribution to the effect of political conflict on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*". Partial correlation coefficient (r_p) was used to test the hypothesis. Table 18 presents the test results.

Table 18: Correlation between causal mechanisms and quality of education in primary schools

		Independent variable: Political conflict	
		Political shocks	Exposure of households to political violence
Control variables: Causal mechanisms	Dependent variable: Quality of education	r_p = -.015 r_p^2 = .0002 p = .806 df = 281	r_p = -.025 r_p^2 = .0006 p = .680 df = 281

Source: Data from field

Findings show that after controlling for causal mechanisms, the correlation between political shocks and quality of education decreased from -.907 (see Table 14) to -.015 (see Table 18). Furthermore, the correlation between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education decreased from -.776 (see Table 16) to -.025 (see Table 18). The coefficient of determination (r_p^2 = .0002 and .0006) after controlling for causal mechanisms shows that political shocks accounted for only 0.02% variance in quality of education in primary schools while exposure of households to political violence accounted for only 0.06% variance in quality of education in primary schools. These findings were subjected to a test of significance (p) and it is shown that the significances of the correlations (p = .806 and .680) are greater than the recommended critical significance at 0.05. Thus, the effects of political shocks and exposure of households to political violence were not significant in affecting quality of education after controlling for causal mechanisms. Because of this, the hypothesis "*Causal mechanisms have a significant negative contribution to the effect of political conflict on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" was accepted.

Therefore, the implication of the findings is that in the absence of causal mechanisms, the effect of the political shocks and exposure of households to political violence on quality of education is weakened. In fact, without causal mechanisms, the effect of political shocks and exposure of households to political conflict on quality of education is too small to cause any concern.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, discussion, conclusions and recommendations according to the objectives of the study. It is divided into four major sections. The first section presents the summary. The second section presents the discussion. The third section presents results – the conclusions. The fourth section presents the recommendations.

5.2 Summary

5.2.1 Political shocks and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The study tested the first hypothesis; "*Political shocks have a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" and it was accepted. This is because there was a negative strong relationship (r = -.907) between political shocks and quality of education in primary schools whereby an increase in the political shocks contributed to a decrease in the quality of education in primary schools and vice versa. Political shocks accounted for 82.3% variance in quality of education in primary schools. Findings show that the armed conflict destroyed markets, supply lines for goods, communications, transportation, roads, health centers, schools and recreation centers. In addition, jobs were lost and working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict and during armed conflict, children and teachers were targeted, teachers were killed, schools were occupied, teachers were afraid to teach, schools were closed and looting occurred. Lastly, aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population. This negatively affected quality of education in Unity State.

5.2.2 Exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The study tested the second hypothesis; "*Exposure of households to political violence has a significant negative effect on the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" and it was accepted. This was because there was a strong negative relationship (r = -.776) between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools whereby more exposure of households to political violence was related to a decline in quality of education in primary schools and vice versa. Exposure of households to political violence accounted for 60.2% variance in quality of education in primary schools. Findings revealed that in Unity State, most families had ever been caught in, seen and heard about armed conflicts. In addition, most households lost family members and family members were sexually violated, physically beaten and mentally tortured during armed conflict. Lastly, most families were looted during armed conflict and aggression against families harmed family members. All these compromised quality of education in Unity State.

5.2.3 Causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The study tested the third hypothesis "*Causal mechanisms have a significant negative contribution to the effect of political conflict on quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan*" and it was accepted. This was because after controlling for causal mechanisms, the relationship between political shocks and quality of education significantly decreased from -.907 to -.015 while that between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education significantly decreased from -.776 to -.025. Political shocks accounted for only 0.02% variance in quality of education in primary schools while exposure of households to political violence accounted for only 0.06%

variance in quality of education in primary schools after controlling for causal mechanisms. Findings show that the recruitment of child soldiers contributed to the reduction of children attending schools, there were child soldiers experiencing severe mental emotional problems making them unable to attend school and due to loss of family members who would work during armed conflict, families had to use children to work for their survival. In addition, it is shown that parents favoured educating boys than girls during armed conflict and fear of physical attacks and sexual violence hindered the ability of children to attend schools. Furthermore, findings show that people run away from communities during armed conflict between government forces and armed rebel forces and during armed conflict between various armed rebel forces, and when armed rebel forces attacked villages. Lastly, people run away from communities in anticipation of armed conflicts, in fear of being singled out for mistreatment (persecution) because they were targeted by armed rebel forces and government forces. Because of this, there was deterioration in the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State.

5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 Political shocks and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The negative very strong relationship between political shocks and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan support various academicians and scholars who have argued or conducted studies that political conflict is detrimental to the quality of education. For example, a study by Stewart et al (2001) of African countries affected by internal armed conflicts found that primary school enrollments decreased. A similar effect was found by Miguel and Roland (2006) who studied the long-term impact of US bombing on the economic development in Vietnam and by Thomas et al. (2004) during crisis in Indonesia. Findings of this study support recent research on the micro-level effects of

violent conflict that has shown negative impacts of civil wars on education (Alderman, Hoddinott & Kinsey 2006, Bundervoet, Verwimp & Akresh 2009, Shemyakina, 2006). The findings of this study corroborate other findings such as Alderman, Hoddinott and Kinsey (2006) study in Zimbabwe, Akresh and de Walque (2008) study in Rwanda, Angrist and Kugler (2008) and Rodriguez and Sanchez (2009) in Colombia, Chamarbagwala and Morán (2009) in Guatemala, de Walque (2006) in Cambodia, Shemyakina (2006) in Tajikistan and Swee (2009) in Bosnia.

This study shows that exposure to conflict creates regional inequalities in educational attainment and in this study, the researcher agrees with the findings. The researcher argues that this arises when some regions are exposed to conflict while others are not. The quality of education under regions that are exposed to conflict deteriorates compared to that of regions not exposed to conflict.

Findings show that the armed conflict destroyed markets, supply lines for goods, communications, transportation, roads, health centers, schools and recreation centers. In addition, jobs were lost and working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict and during armed conflict, children and teachers were targeted, teachers were killed, schools were occupied, teachers were afraid to teach, schools were closed and looting occurred. Lastly, aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population. In this study, the researcher agrees with the findings because according to literature reviewed, various authors highlight the destructive tendencies of political conflicts. The findings of this study support Shemyakina (2006) who observed that in theory, armed conflicts could affect schooling of individuals through the following four channels. First, civil wars and conflicts may reduce expected returns to schooling. In particular, returns may fall significantly for some elements of the population. Lower returns

to schooling may motivate decisions to stop attending school either temporarily or permanently. Second, armed conflicts reduce resources available to many households. An unexpected decrease in income may induce households to withdraw their children from school in an attempt to maintain current level of consumption. Third, infrastructure is often destroyed in the course of internal wars, and schools and educational facilities are often targeted by militants. Some communities may be affected significantly. Children from such communities would have to travel to schools elsewhere or stop attending school altogether. If schools are not rebuilt within a reasonable period, we may observe some communities falling behind the rest of the country in their educational attainments. Fourth, civilians are often terrorized by armed forces and militias. Violence and feelings of insecurity may induce households to keep children away from public places, go into hiding or relocate (Shemyakina, 2006).

The study findings also show that exposure to conflict reduces the financial resources available to many households as it was indicated the armed conflict destroyed markets, supply lines for goods, jobs were lost and people found it difficult working in gardens. The researcher agrees with the findings because if the economic means of the people are destroyed in the conflict, then their livelihoods are also destroyed. According to Jacoby and Skoufias (1997) and Thomas et al (2004), during political conflict, households would like to invest in the education of their children. However, when facing an unexpected income shock, they have to trade-off future for present consumption. When the shock hits, households withdraw children from school and send them to work to maintain current consumption levels. Thus, income uncertainty adversely affects the quality and quantity of children's education (Jacoby & Skoufias, 1997; Thomas et al, 2004). In some situations, households have difficulty in reallocating resources because they have so little already to invest in the education in the area.

Study findings relating to armed conflict destructiveness support Glewwe (1994) who argued that during civil wars households and communities have to deal with physical destruction of property and infrastructure, which affect the quality of education negatively. Glewwe (1994) argued that when infrastructure is destroyed, it forces people to flee for safety, which was the case in Unity State in Southern Sudan as indicated by the findings of this study. Mooney and French (2005) argued that the displaced find themselves in remote areas without any educational facilities, massive influxes usually overcrowd schooling facilities and thus access to schooling becomes cumbersome for children. Findings of this study also support Justino (2010) who observed that civil wars and associated physical destruction could interrupt the education of children through the damage to schools, absence of teachers, fears of insecurity and changes in family structures and household income.

This study established that political conflict created fear among the local communities of Unity State in Southern Sudan, which adversely affected schooling in the region. The researcher agrees with the findings of this study because any human being who encounters life threatening experiences is bound to live in fear for his/her life. The finding of this study supports Azam and Hoeffler (2002) who explained that internal conflicts could have an impact by increasing fears of violence and insecurity. Violence against civilians in form of torture, kidnappings and targeted killings are very common in conflict-affected regions. In the atmosphere of terror, households may attempt to protect their most vulnerable members, by keeping them at home away from schools.

5.3.2 Exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The study established that most families had ever been caught in, seen and heard about armed conflicts. The researcher agrees with the finding because any human being in a conflict zone is likely to either to be caught in conflict or to actually see the conflict or only hear about conflict or they personally can go through all these experiences. In addition, most households lost family members and family members were sexually violated, physically beaten and mentally tortured during armed conflict. Lastly, most families were looted during armed conflict and aggression against families harmed family members. These compromised the quality of education in Unity State, South Sudan. The researcher agrees with the findings because from various armed conflict reports by various organizations and media such atrocious acts against victims of the conflict have been brought to light. Thus, the community of Unity State cannot be exempted from such experiences.

The negative relationship between exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools established in this study support other studies that established similar results. For example, these findings support Shemyakina (2006) who examined the effects of the armed conflict in Tajikistan using data on past damage to household dwellings and data on exposure to conflict. The results indicated that exposure to the conflict, as measured by physical damage to households' dwellings, had a large, significant and negative effect on the school enrollment and children who were of school going age during the conflict and lived in conflict-affected regions were less likely to complete mandatory schooling.

The findings of this study also support Chamarbagwala (2008) who examined how the worst period of the civil war in Guatemala affected human capital accumulation amongst affected children. This study examined the effects of war on years of schooling and grade completion amongst different social groups. Similar to this study's findings, the results show a strong negative impact of the civil war on children's education due to conflicts destructiveness on properties and displacement of people. Such destructive and displacement tendencies also happened in Unity State in South Sudan. The study suggests that loss of property and massive displacement led households to reallocate limited resources towards survival at the expense of investing in education of the children.

Findings of this study support Machel (2001) who argued that the education systems are inextricably linked to the states and societies they serve and that when conflicts erupt, schooling functions erratically, if at all. In this study, it was established in certain areas that were affected by political conflict, some schools were completely closed while others continued to operate but under difficult conditions such as under fear of an attack or insufficient time devoted to education, or destroyed education infrastructure to mention some.

The study findings also support Burde, Arnstein, Pagen and Zakharia (2004) who observed that conflicts and post-conflict environments present enormous challenges to educators. For example, this study established that during the political conflict in Southern Sudan, state education and health institutions collapsed and because of this, some schools subsequently dissolved and were unavailable to children. In addition, perpetrators of the political conflict in Southern Sudan often targeted children for recruiting, actively disrupting students' access to education and forcing a reasonable proportion of the children into engaging in the conflict.

5.3.3 Causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

Findings of this study revealed that in Unity State, South Sudan, the recruitment of child soldiers contributed to the reduction of children attending schools and some child soldiers experienced severe mental emotional problems making them unable to attend school. The researcher agrees with the findings because if a child is recruited as a soldier, definitely such a child will not have time for attending schools given that soldiers are required any time to engage in military activities. These findings support the argument by Justino (2010) that the recruitment of children into armed groups and armies has considerable impacts on their educational attainment. Findings also support Yule et al. (2003) cited in UNFPA (2006) who observed that boys and girls exposed to conflict may also experience severe psychological effects that will affect their educational outcomes because they may become depressed and socially withdrawn, leading to lower schooling performance or to leave their studies prematurely.

Findings of this study revealed that in Unity State, South Sudan, families resorted to child labor for their survival instead of educating their children due to loss of family members. The researcher agrees with the findings because if the sources of income for the people are destroyed in armed conflict, they have to look for alternative means of survival and child labor can be among such means. This finding is similar to Rodriguez and Sanchez (2009) who tested directly the effect of war on child labor and found that violent attacks in Colombian municipalities by armed groups increased significantly the probability of school drop-out, and increased the inclusion of children in the labor market. This finding of this study supports arguments for and findings on how political conflict affects quality of education through household labor allocation decisions. For example, the findings support

Dasgupta (1993), Basu and Van (1998) and Duryea, Lam and Levinson (2007) who observed that the use of children as a form of economic security mechanism to the detriment of educating them is widely reported in the development economics literature. In other words, literature has shown that there has been a tendency of families resorting to child labor after losing able bodied members who could provide support to the households. This is exactly what happened in Unity State, South Sudan. During armed conflict, boys are employed in farming and other activities, while girls are needed to help with domestic work, childcare and agricultural tasks. For those that do manage to get schooling while still working, there are losses in the quality of their education due to chronic fatigue and stress, where students are "too exhausted to realize their potential" (Brookings Institution-SAIS Project on Internal Displacement, 2003).

Findings of this study revealed that in Unity State, South Sudan, parents favored educating boys than girls during armed conflict. The researcher agrees with the findings because parents may act to protect the girls who are likely to be vulnerable for sexual harassment during armed conflict. Thus, by keeping them at home, vulnerability to sexual harassment is reduced. This finding highlight how political conflict affected quality of education through changes in terms of gender inequalities. The finding support Justino (2010) who emphasized that returns to education play a large role in households' decisions during political conflicts. It is shown in this study that households in Unity State, South Sudan responded during the political conflict by redistributing their resources away from girls to boys and this possibility was because investing more in the education of boys rather than girls had a higher probability of boys finding better paid jobs.

The study revealed that in Unity State, South Sudan, fear of physical attacks and sexual violence hindered the ability of children to attend schools. The researcher agrees with the findings because any moral human being fears physical attacks and sexual violence. Thus,

the person will try to avoid these experiences. This finding support arguments and evidence that fear plays an important part in explaining the removal of children from schools during violent events (IRIN, 2004; Oxfam, 2001; Ward, 2002). Fear of physical attacks and sexual violence hinder the ability of children to enroll in schools in Unity State, South Sudan. In such contexts of fear and terror, households attempt to protect vulnerable children keeping them away from schools, which were targeted during armed conflicts.

Study findings revealed that in Unity State, South Sudan, people run away from communities during armed conflict or in anticipation of armed conflicts. These displacements made it difficult for families to educate their children. These findings support Justino (2010) who opined that violent conflict and the resulting displacement can leave generations of children without access to education and the social structures provided by schools and teachers.

5.4 Conclusion

5.4.1 Political shocks and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The findings of this study support the hypothesis that political conflicts can lead to decrease in school enrollment and school attainment, and in particular affect education of vulnerable children (orphans and children of poor parents who could not afford to send them to neighbouring countries for better education). It is clear from the findings that civil wars affect children's education attainment and schooling. This is particularly when school infrastructure is damaged. With fewer schools, the number of children who enroll declines and even when they enroll, the quality of education is poor due to lack of the educational requirements such as better classrooms, supply of teachers and teaching materials.

5.4.2 Exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The findings of this study show a negative relationship of violent conflict on the human capital of individuals (and consequently of families) exposed to violence and quality of education in political conflict affected regions (in this study, Unity State, South Sudan). Findings show that exposure to conflict can change social, economic and political relations in such a way that makes returns to schooling less attractive. Due to the destruction of industries and infrastructure, job opportunities for skilled labor, become scarce leading households to value education less.

5.4.3 Causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

This study shows that the recruitment of child soldiers leads to lower educational attainment amongst children that joined (or were forced to join) armies and rebel groups. Violent conflict affected the income, consumption and wellbeing levels of households leading to labor allocation decisions where children were withdrawn from school for work. Violent conflict affects the returns households could obtain from their investment in the education of children. Fear was central in household decisions on whether to send children to school as children were particularly vulnerable to harassment, abductions and sexual attacks. Displaced children are particularly vulnerable to being denied access to education.

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Political shocks and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The government of South Sudan together with donors, UN Agencies, Funds and Programmes (AFPs), INGOs, NGOs and CBOs should invest in the social and economic

infrastructure in Unity State. This will help alleviate the political conflict shocks experienced in the region, which compromise the quality of education. More specifically, investment should be in building schools, classrooms, administration blocks, provision of scholastic materials, construction of markets and supply lines for goods including communications, health centers and transportation. These efforts will create jobs for the local community of Unity State and act as a source of income, which will motivate them to send children to school.

5.5.2 Exposure of households to political violence and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The government of South Sudan together with donors, UN AFPs, INGOs, NGOs and CBOs should provide psycho-social support services and/or support to households that were exposed to political violence, which compromised the education of children. This will help improve the social, economic and political relations in such a way that makes returns to schooling more attractive.

5.5.3 Causal mechanisms linking political conflict and quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan

The government of South Sudan specifically Unity State government together with donors, UN AFPs, INGOs, NGOs and CBOs should give an opportunity to child soldiers to access education, create income generating activities to improve the income, consumption and wellbeing levels of households to revise labor allocation decisions by increasing enrollment of children in schools.

5.6 Limitations of the study

The researcher faced difficulty in conducting the research during school holidays. There was difficulty in finding education officials in their offices since some of them would be gone for official duty. Another challenge was language barrier and cultural differences. However, the researcher overcame the first challenge by conducting the research during the school term and the second difficulty was overcome by making appointments with the education officials which helped to save time and resources. The third challenge was overcome by engaging the services of research assistants who knew the local languages and were conversant with the cultural sensitivities and helped collect data without arousing suspicion.

5.7 Areas recommended for future research

The study investigated political conflict and the quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan. However, there are other factors that can also affect quality of education in primary schools in Unity State, South Sudan, which could be investigated. The other factors could include teachers' attitudes towards education, students' attitudes towards education, parents' attitudes towards education, management of education, and availability of scholastic materials to mention some. Again the study concentrated on Unity State and South Sudan has ten states. The same study can be carried out in other states to compare findings and make comprehensive deductions to facilitate policy formulation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for the selected respondents (Pupils, Teachers and Parents)

Dear Respondent,

Please kindly spare some few minutes to respond to the following questions. Information received from you is for academic purposes and will be kept confidential. You will not be victimized for whatever answer you have given and to ensure this; you are not required to identify yourself anywhere on the questionnaire.

Section A: Background information

NB: Please circle or tick against the appropriate number

a) Your age: (1) 9 to 14 years ☐ (2) 15 to 20 years ☐ (3) 21 to 25 years ☐
(4) 26 to 30 years ☐ (5) 31 to 35 years ☐ (6) 36 to 40 years ☐

b) Your class: (1) P. 1 ☐ (2) P. 2 ☐ (3) P. 3 ☐ (4) P. 4 ☐
(5) P. 5 ☐ (6) P. 6 ☐ (7) P. 7 ☐ (8) P.8 ☐

c) Your sex (1) Male ☐ (2) Female ☐

Section B: Political conflict

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Tick or circle the most appropriate using the following scale.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3=Not sure 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

a) Political shocks	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. The armed conflict destroyed markets					
2. The armed conflict destroyed supply lines for goods					
3. The armed conflict destroyed communications					
4. The armed conflict destroyed transportation					
5. The armed conflict destroyed roads					
6. Jobs were lost because of the armed conflict					
7. Working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict					
8. The armed conflict destroyed health centres					
9. The armed conflict destroyed schools					
10. The armed conflict destroyed health centres					
11. Children were targeted during armed conflict					
12. Teachers were targeted during armed conflict					
13. Teachers were killed during armed conflict					
14. Schools were occupied during armed conflict					
15. Teachers were afraid to teach during armed conflict					
16. Schools were closed during armed conflict					

17. Looting occurred during armed conflict					
18. Aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population					

Section C: Exposure of households to political violence

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Tick or circle the most appropriate using the following scale.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3 = Not sure 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

a) Exposure of households to political violence	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
19. Our family has ever been caught in armed conflicts in our area					
20. Several times, our family has been caught in armed conflicts in our area					
21. Our family has ever seen armed conflicts in our area					
22. Several times, our family has seen armed conflicts in our area					
23. Our family has ever heard about armed conflicts in our area					
24. Several times, our family has heard about armed conflicts in our area					
25. We lost family members during armed conflict					
26. Our family members were sexually violated during armed conflict					
27. Our family members were physically beaten during armed conflict					
28. Our family members were mentally tortured during armed conflict					
29. Our family was looted during armed conflict					
30. Aggression against our family harmed family members					

Section D: Causal mechanisms linking political conflict and educational attainment

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Tick or circle the most appropriate using the following scale.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3=Not sure 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

a) Causal mechanisms	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
31. The recruitment of child soldiers contributed to the reduction of children attending schools					
32. There are child soldiers experiencing severe mental problems making them unable to attend school					
33. There are child soldiers experiencing severe emotional problems making them unable to attend school					
34. Due to loss of family members who would work during armed conflict our family had to use child to work for their survival					
35. Parents favoured educating boys than girls during armed conflict					
36. Fear of physical attacks hindered the ability of children to attend schools					
37. Fear of sexual violence hindered the ability of children to attend schools					
38. We run away from our communities during armed conflict between government forces and armed rebel forces					

39. We run away from our communities during armed conflict between various rebel forces					
40. We run away from our communities when armed rebel forces attacked our village					
41. We run away from our communities in anticipation of armed conflicts					
42. We run away from our communities in fear of being singled out for mistreatment (persecution)					
43. We run away from our communities because we were targeted by armed rebel forces					
44. We run away from our communities because we were targeted by government forces					

Section E: Quality of education

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements as they apply to quality of education? Tick or circle the most appropriate using the following scale.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3=Not sure 4 = Agree 5= Strongly Agree

a) Education access	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
45. Children in our home find difficult to attend school					
46. There are very few schools near our home					
47. Boys find it difficult to attend schools than girls					
48. Very few children attend school					
b) Education attainment					
49. Many children in this area have started schooling very late					
50. Many children in this area have completed less levels of schooling					
51. Girls have suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys					
52. Many children dropout of school					
53. Many children repeat classes					
d) School infrastructure					
54. There are few school buildings					
55. The school buildings are in a poor state					
56. School buildings were destroyed during the political conflict					
e) Availability of teachers					
57. There are few school teachers					
58. Teachers are always late					
59. Teachers are always absent					
f) Schooling capacity					
60. Schools have few teaching materials					
61. The classrooms are very few					
62. The classrooms are very small					

Section F: Strategies for improving quality of education in political conflict areas

What efforts have been adopted to improve quality of education in areas affected by armed conflict? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

How can the quality of education in areas affected by armed conflict be improved? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix 2: Interview guide for key informants

Dear Respondent,

Please kindly spare some few minutes to respond to the following questions. Information received from you is for academic purposes and will be kept confidential. You will not be victimized for whatever answer you have given and to ensure this; you are not required to identify yourself anywhere in this interview session.

Section A: Background information

1. Respondent's age _____
2. Respondent's title _____
3. Respondent's gender (sex) 1) Male 2) Female

Section B: Political conflict and quality of education

1. What was the effect of armed conflict on economic life of the people in this area?
2. What was the effect of armed conflict on social life of the people in this area?
3. How have households been exposed to political violence?
4. What do you have to say about armed conflict and displacement of people in this area?
5. During violent political conflict, were children either removed from school or prevented from attending school?
6. What efforts have been adopted to improve quality of education in areas affected by armed conflict?
7. How can the quality of education in areas affected by armed conflict be improved?

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix 3: Findings about political shocks

Items about political shocks	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. The armed conflict destroyed markets	19 (7%)	1 (0%)	12 (4%)	188 (66%)	64 (23%)	284 (100%)
2. The armed conflict destroyed supply lines for goods	7 (2%)	20 (7%)	35 (12%)	128 (46%)	94 (33%)	284 (100%)
3. The armed conflict destroyed communications	14 (5%)	9 (3%)	27 (10%)	152 (53%)	82 (29%)	284 (100%)
4. The armed conflict destroyed transportation	11 (4%)	11 (4%)	16 (6%)	103 (36%)	143 (50%)	284 (100%)
5. The armed conflict destroyed roads	12 (4%)	17 (6%)	26 (9%)	130 (46%)	99 (35%)	284 (100%)
6. Jobs were lost because of the armed conflict	16 (6%)	11 (4%)	11 (4%)	110 (38%)	136 (48%)	284 (100%)
7. Working in gardens was difficult because of the armed conflict	8 (3%)	14 (5%)	46 (16%)	122 (43%)	94 (33%)	284 (100%)
8. The armed conflict destroyed health centers	5 (2%)	22 (8%)	10 (4%)	115 (40%)	132 (46%)	284 (100%)
9. The armed conflict destroyed schools	14 (5%)	7 (2%)	10 (4%)	180 (63%)	73 (26%)	284 (100%)
10. The armed conflict destroyed recreation centers	6 (2%)	12 (4%)	21 (7%)	175 (62%)	70 (25%)	284 (100%)
11. Children were targeted during armed conflict	12 (4%)	40 (14%)	11 (4%)	152 (54%)	69 (24%)	284 (100%)
12. Teachers were targeted during armed conflict	20 (7%)	7 (2%)	15 (5%)	173 (62%)	69 (24%)	284 (100%)
13. Teachers were killed during armed conflict	6 (2%)	15 (5%)	24 (8%)	157 (56%)	82 (29%)	284 (100%)
14. Schools were occupied during armed conflict	7 (2%)	21 (7%)	5 (2%)	155 (55%)	96 (34%)	284 (100%)
15. Teachers were afraid to teach during armed conflict	20 (7%)	4 (1%)	22 (8%)	178 (63%)	60 (21%)	284 (100%)
16. Schools were closed during armed conflict	8 (3%)	19 (7%)	38 (13%)	140 (49%)	79 (28%)	284 (100%)
17. Looting occurred during armed conflict	16 (6%)	10 (4%)	25 (9%)	136 (47%)	97 (34%)	284 (100%)
18. Aggression against civilians harmed particular groups within the population	13 (5%)	12 (4%)	11 (4%)	95 (33%)	153 (54%)	284 (100%)

Appendix 4: Findings about quality of education

Items about education access	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Children in our home find difficult to attend school	15 (5%)	6 (2%)	12 (4%)	208 (74%)	43 (15%)	284 (100%)
There are very few schools near our home	9 (3%)	11 (4%)	23 (8%)	186 (66%)	55 (19%)	284 (100%)
Boys find it difficult to attend schools than girls	16 (6%)	47 (17%)	14 (5%)	173 (60%)	34 (12%)	284 (100%)
Very few children attend school	27 (10%)	19 (7%)	11 (4%)	154 (53%)	73 (26%)	284 (100%)
Items about education attainment	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Many children in this area have started schooling very late	15 (5%)	6 (2%)	16 (6%)	174 (61%)	73 (26%)	284 (100%)
Many children in this area have completed less levels of schooling	13 (5%)	18 (6%)	11 (4%)	164 (58%)	78 (27%)	284 (100%)
Girls have suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys	6 (2%)	9 (3%)	28 (10%)	173 (61%)	68 (24%)	284 (100%)
Many children dropout of school	23 (8%)	0 (0%)	20 (7%)	143 (50%)	98 (35%)	284 (100%)
Many children repeat classes	12 (4%)	15 (5%)	18 (6%)	151 (54%)	88 (31%)	284 (100%)
Items about school infrastructure	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
There are few school buildings	6 (2%)	24 (8%)	9 (3%)	122 (44%)	123 (43%)	284 (100%)
The school buildings are in a poor state	15 (5%)	0 (0%)	24 (8%)	100 (36%)	145 (51%)	284 (100%)
School buildings were destroyed during the political conflict	10 (4%)	21 (7%)	0 (0%)	158 (56%)	95 (33%)	284 (100%)
Items about availability of teachers	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
There are few school teachers	12 (4%)	9 (3%)	6 (2%)	131 (47%)	126 (44%)	284 (100%)
Teachers are always late	25 (9%)	8 (3%)	17 (6%)	139 (49%)	95 (33%)	284 (100%)
Teachers are always absent	10 (4%)	29 (10%)	9 (3%)	146 (51%)	90 (32%)	284 (100%)
Items about schooling capacity	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Schools have few teaching materials	6 (2%)	23 (8%)	4 (1%)	149 (53%)	102 (36%)	284 (100%)
The classrooms are very few	6 (2%)	15 (5%)	3 (1%)	191 (68%)	69 (24%)	284 (100%)
The classrooms are very small	11 (4%)	6 (2%)	10 (4%)	144 (50%)	113 (40%)	284 (100%)

Appendix 5: Findings about causal mechanisms

Items about exposure of households to political violence	SD	D	NS	A	SA	Total
1. Our family has ever been caught in armed conflicts in our area	50 (18%)	27 (10%)	17 (6%)	112 (39%)	78 (27%)	284 (100%)
2. Several times, our family has been caught in armed conflicts in our area	22 (8%)	13 (5%)	13 (5%)	103 (35%)	133 (47%)	284 (100%)
3. Our family has ever seen armed conflicts in our area	36 (13%)	16 (6%)	37 (13%)	110 (38%)	85 (30%)	284 (100%)
4. Several times, our family has seen armed conflicts in our area	14 (5%)	20 (7%)	3 (1%)	108 (38%)	139 (49%)	284 (100%)
5. Our family has ever heard about armed conflicts in our area	29 (10%)	10 (4%)	8 (3%)	169 (59%)	68 (24%)	284 (100%)
6. Several times, our family has heard about armed conflicts in our area	9 (3%)	13 (5%)	22 (8%)	163 (57%)	77 (27%)	284 (100%)
7. We lost family members during armed conflict	15 (5%)	39 (14%)	8 (3%)	140 (49%)	82 (29%)	284 (100%)
8. Our family members were sexually violated during armed conflict	19 (7%)	9 (3%)	10 (4%)	158 (55%)	88 (31%)	284 (100%)
9. Our family members were physically beaten during armed conflict	8 (3%)	15 (5%)	23 (8%)	150 (53%)	88 (31%)	284 (100%)
10. Our family members were mentally tortured during armed conflict	12 (4%)	19 (7%)	5 (2%)	149 (52%)	99 (35%)	284 (100%)
11. Our family was looted during armed conflict	20 (7%)	5 (2%)	12 (4%)	175 (62%)	72 (25%)	284 (100%)
12. Aggression against our family harmed family members	7 (2%)	21 (7%)	38 (13%)	130 (47%)	88 (31%)	284 (100%)

Appendix 6: Findings about quality of education

Items about education access	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Children in our home find difficult to attend school	15 (5%)	6 (2%)	12 (4%)	208 (74%)	43 (15%)	284 (100%)
There are very few schools near our home	9 (3%)	11 (4%)	23 (8%)	186 (66%)	55 (19%)	284 (100%)
Boys find it difficult to attend schools than girls	16 (6%)	47 (17%)	14 (5%)	173 (60%)	34 (12%)	284 (100%)
Very few children attend school	27 (10%)	19 (7%)	11 (4%)	154 (53%)	73 (26%)	284 (100%)
Items about education attainment	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Many children in this area have started schooling very late	15 (5%)	6 (2%)	16 (6%)	174 (61%)	73 (26%)	284 (100%)
Many children in this area have completed less levels of schooling	13 (5%)	18 (6%)	11 (4%)	164 (58%)	78 (27%)	284 (100%)
Girls have suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys	6 (2%)	9 (3%)	28 (10%)	173 (61%)	68 (24%)	284 (100%)
Many children dropout of school	23 (8%)	0 (0%)	20 (7%)	143 (50%)	98 (35%)	284 (100%)
Many children repeat classes	12 (4%)	15 (5%)	18 (6%)	151 (54%)	88 (31%)	284 (100%)
Items about school infrastructure	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
There are few school buildings	6 (2%)	24 (8%)	9 (3%)	122 (44%)	123 (43%)	284 (100%)
The school buildings are in a poor state	15 (5%)	0 (0%)	24 (8%)	100 (36%)	145 (51%)	284 (100%)
School buildings were destroyed during the political conflict	10 (4%)	21 (7%)	0 (0%)	158 (56%)	95 (33%)	284 (100%)
Items about availability of teachers	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
There are few school teachers	12 (4%)	9 (3%)	6 (2%)	131 (47%)	126 (44%)	284 (100%)
Teachers are always late	25 (9%)	8 (3%)	17 (6%)	139 (49%)	95 (33%)	284 (100%)
Teachers are always absent	10 (4%)	29 (10%)	9 (3%)	146 (51%)	90 (32%)	284 (100%)
Items about schooling capacity	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
Schools have few teaching materials	6 (2%)	23 (8%)	4 (1%)	149 (53%)	102 (36%)	284 (100%)
The classrooms are very few	6 (2%)	15 (5%)	3 (1%)	191 (68%)	69 (24%)	284 (100%)
The classrooms are very small	11 (4%)	6 (2%)	10 (4%)	144 (50%)	113 (40%)	284 (100%)

Appendix 7: Findings about quality of education

Items about education access	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
4. Children in our home find difficult to attend school	5%	2%	4%	74%	15%	100 %
5. There are very few schools near our home	3%	4%	8%	66%	19%	100 %
6. Boys find it difficult to attend schools than girls	6%	17%	5%	60%	12%	100 %
7. Very few children attend school	10%	7%	4%	53%	26%	100 %
Items about education attainment	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
8. Many children in this area have started schooling very late	5%	2%	6%	61%	26%	100 %
9. Many children in this area have completed less levels of schooling	5%	6%	4%	58%	27%	100 %
10. Girls have suffered the greatest loss in education compared to boys	2%	3%	10%	61%	24%	100 %
11. Many children dropout of school	8%	0%	7%	50%	35%	100 %
12. Many children repeat classes	4%	5%	6%	54%	31%	100 %
Items about school infrastructure	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
13. There are few school buildings	2%	8%	3%	44%	43%	100 %
14. The school buildings are in a poor state	5%	0%	8%	36%	51%	100 %
15. School buildings were destroyed during the political conflict	4%	7%	0%	56%	33%	100 %
Items about availability of teachers	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
16. There are few school teachers	4%	3%	2%	47%	44%	100 %
17. Teachers are always late	9%	3%	6%	49%	33%	100 %
18. Teachers are always absent	4%	10%	3%	51%	32%	100 %
Items about schooling capacity	**SD**	**D**	**NS**	**A**	**SA**	**Total**
19. Schools have few teaching materials	2%	8%	1%	53%	36%	100 %
20. The classrooms are very few	2%	5%	1%	68%	24%	100 %
21. The classrooms are very small	4%	2%	4%	50%	40%	100 %

Appendix 8: Recommendation to undertake field work

UGANDA MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

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256-75-2259722
Telefax: 256-41-4259581 /314
E-mail: admin@umi.ac.ug

Plot 44-52, Jinja Road
P.O. Box 20131
Kampala, Uganda
Website: http://www.umi.ac.ug

Your Ref:

Our Ref: G/35

17 December 2012

Mr. David Asiimwe
11/MMSPPM/25/034

Dear Mr. Asiimwe,

FIELD RESEARCH

Following a successful defense of your proposal before a panel of Masters Defense Committee and the inclusion of suggested comments, I wish to recommend you to proceed for fieldwork.

Please note that the previous chapters 1, 2 and 3 will need to be continuously improved and updated as you progress in your research work.

Wishing you the best in the field.

Yours sincerely,

Stella Kyohairwe (PhD)
AG. HEAD, HIGHER DEGREES DEPARTMENT

Appendix 9: Introduction letter for field work

UGANDA MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

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Plot 44-52, Jinja Road
P.O. Box 20131
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Website: http://www.umi.ac.ug

Your Ref:

Our Ref: G/35

17 December 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

MASTERS IN MANAGEMENT STUDIES DEGREE RESEARCH

Mr. David Asiimwe is a student of the Masters Degree in Management Studies of Uganda Management Institute 25th Intake 2011/2012 specializing in Project Planning and Management, **Reg. Number 11/MMSPPM/25/034.**

The purpose of this letter is to formally request you to allow this participant to access any information in your custody/organisation, which is relevant to his research.

His Research Topic is: ***"Political Conflict and Quality of Education in South Sudan: A Case of Primary Schools in Unity State"***

Stella Kyohairwe (PhD)
AG. HEAD, HIGHER DEGREES DEPARTMENT

Appendix 10: Map of the Republic of South Sudan